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Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

VOLUME 19

ISSUE 4

VERSION 1.0



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH: A
ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

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ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

VOLUME 19 ISSUE 4 (VER. 1.0)

OPEN ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH: A
ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT
Volume 19 Issue 4 Version 1.0 Year 2019
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-4588 & Print ISSN: 0975-5853

The Nexus between Mentoring Dimensions and Organizational Commitment of Academic Staff in Selected Private Universities in South-West Nigeria

By Valerie A. Onyia, Olalekan U. Asikhia, Grace O. Makinde & Olive U. Egbuta
Babcock University

Abstract- Effective mentorship aids employee retention by enhancing organisational commitment. Using the responses of 315 academic staff and in-depth interviews of professors and junior lecturers of six selected private universities in South-West Nigeria, this study explored mentoring as an emerging form of leadership development programs and its concomitant relationship with employee outcomes with a view to making veritable recommendations for its adoption to build skills and human capacity in Nigerian universities. Despite the various forms of mentoring, it focused on workplace/organisational mentoring. The two main types of mentoring discussed were formal and informal mentoring. Correlation analysis was used to analyse the hypothesis which was supported. Findings revealed that mentoring dimensions had a significant weak positive relationship with employee commitment ($r=0.121, 0.150, 0.159, 0.188, 0.203, p<0.05, N=315$). The qualitative findings indicated that mentoring to a large extent positively affects employees' organisational commitment.

Keywords: employees' behavioural outcomes; mentoring; nigeria; organisational commitment; retention.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M10



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The Nexus between Mentoring Dimensions and Organizational Commitment of Academic Staff in Selected Private Universities in South-West Nigeria

Valerie A. Onyia ^α, Olalekan U. Asikhia ^σ, Grace O. Makinde ^ρ & Olive U. Egbuta ^ω

Abstract- Effective mentorship aids employee retention by enhancing organisational commitment. Using the responses of 315 academic staff and in-depth interviews of professors and junior lecturers of six selected private universities in South-West Nigeria, this study explored mentoring as an emerging form of leadership development programs and its concomitant relationship with employee outcomes with a view to making veritable recommendations for its adoption to build skills and human capacity in Nigerian universities. Despite the various forms of mentoring, it focused on workplace/organisational mentoring. The two main types of mentoring discussed were formal and informal mentoring. Correlation analysis was used to analyse the hypothesis which was supported. Findings revealed that mentoring dimensions had a significant weak positive relationship with employee commitment ($r=0.121, 0.150, 0.159, 0.188, 0.203, p < 0.05, N=315$). The qualitative findings indicated that mentoring to a large extent positively affects employees' organisational commitment. Finally, implications for future research were mentioned. While mentoring relationships have a positive impact on each of the dimensions of commitment, affective commitment is most influenced. It was recommended that every university should put in place structures that would support mentoring and align it with faculty's promotion.

Keywords: employees' behavioural outcomes; mentoring; nigeria; organisational commitment; retention.

1. INTRODUCTION

The academic scene worldwide keep striving for success and continuously engage in healthy competition. In order to remain relevant, universities need to acquire and utilize her human resources effectively.

Human resources (HR) practitioners should pay special attention to all the core functions of human resource management because this affects organisations culturally, economically and socially and determines the attainment of its goals and objectives. Employees are important assets in any organisation. They play significant roles in the success of any enterprise and their influence cannot be underestimated. Therefore, equipping them with leadership development

practices like mentoring becomes imperative to improving their performance for dealing with the challenges inherent in the global work environment and also to ensure the going concern of most business organisations.

Mentoring is critical and imperative especially in the 21st century workforce. However, human resource (HR) practitioners are only just beginning to understand the relevance and challenges of mentoring practices in developing nations and how the HR strategy can be aligned with the business strategy (McKevitt & Marshall, 2015). Mentoring is not a new concept in academic circles especially in the West and some African countries. There is growing concern about raising academic standards and a desire for Nigerian universities to compete favourably with their counterparts in other parts of the world. The management of the institutions are therefore under increased pressure to create opportunities for professional guidance and development of their academic staff to avert a slide in academic performance. A method that helps to maintain good academic standards and performance is through mentoring (Okurame, 2008). The impact of tertiary education in Nigeria cannot be overemphasized as universities aid the reduction in illiteracy, discrimination and unemployment. The performance of lecturers in Nigerian academia is significant to the enhancement of the educational sector in Nigeria. In South western Nigeria, private universities play a major role in promoting private sector development and stimulating the intellectual acumen of employable graduates. A change in the educational sector with the implementation of mentoring programs in Nigerian academia will impact Nigeria positively in that practically all sectors will gain maximally in terms of sales growth, profitability and market share because academics will be able to make the town and gown linkages by conducting ground-breaking research that leads to organisational development and ultimately the development of the Nigerian economy (Okurame, 2012).

Additionally, mentoring is effective and produces positive outcomes for both parties if it "fulfils

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the need to belong” (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) i.e. the need to develop and maintain positive interpersonal relationships with people through affiliation and acceptance from others (Allen & Eby, 2010). Mentoring in academia is crucial for career advancement, heightened self-confidence of staff, and for providing an increased sense of belonging.

Mentoring relationships can be informal or formal. Informal mentoring relationships are those which evolve naturally from shared admiration, aspiration, values and interests. The formal types are those created to ensure that more employees have the opportunity to reap the benefits of the relationship. They are formed through a planned matching or assignment of mentors and protégés (the younger and less experienced partner in the union) by the organization (Allen, Eby, O'Brien & Lentz, 2008).

Research on mentoring universally has increased and it has created more room for a thorough review of the literature. The intent of this paper is to clarify what mentoring is and if it is really associated with and affects employees' behavioural outcomes like employee commitment in Nigerian private universities, thus providing conceptual clarity on the relationship between the variables. This study is important because it has implications for employee retention. Mentoring is a best practice leadership development programme while commitment is what employers hope to gain from employees by treating them as unique resources of competitive advantage. It also provides a framework for rethinking, understanding and examining mentoring relationships.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

a) *The concept of Mentorship*

Mentoring is the “traditional relationship between a senior, more experienced person (the mentor) and a junior or less experienced person (the protégé/mentee) for the purpose of teaching the junior employee about his or her job, of introducing the junior employee to contacts, to orient the employee to the industry and the organization, and to address social and personal issues that may arise on the job” (Allen, Eby, O'Brien & Lentz, 2008, p.2).

Retrospectively, mentoring is prevalent in everyday life and mentor-protégé relationships can be found in nearly all professions (Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer, 2017; Adair, 2006). Some examples are in Science (Sigmund Freud mentored Carl Jung), Literature (Gertrude Stein mentored Ernest Hemingway) and Entertainment (Whitney Houston mentored Beyoncé Knowles) etc. Organisational mentoring's origin is attributed to researchers like Levinson (1978), Kram (1985) and more recently Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer (2017). Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz & Lima (2004) examined mentoring's effects on protégé outcomes.

Very few studies (Okurame & Balogun, 2005; Okurame, 2008) in Nigeria have examined mentoring's effects on positive outcomes. Thus, this study contributes to the literature by comparing results from academia in selected private universities in Nigeria.

Furthermore, mentoring also has different forms like youth mentoring and student-faculty mentoring (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2010). Perhaps this may have led to the lack of consensus on the definition of mentoring. However, for the intended research, the focus will be on organisational mentoring whereby more experienced employees help less experienced employees/protégés aimed at the personal and professional growth of protégés (Allen & Eby, 2010; Jackson & Parry, 2011).

Multiple definitions of mentoring exists (see Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, for a brief review) although most are based on Kram's (1985) discussion of mentoring as involving an intense relationship between two people where a more experienced person (the mentor) helps the junior person (the protégé) by providing advice about career development issues as well as personal (psychosocial) support. We utilized the definition offered by Bozeman and Feeney (2007) whereby mentoring “is a process for the informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and psychosocial support perceived by the recipient as relevant to work, career, or professional development” (p. 731). Mentoring involves informal communication, usually face-to-face occurring over time “between someone perceived to have greater relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentor) and a person who is perceived to have less (the protégé)” (p. 731). A mentor is often seen by his or her protégé as a resource person or counselor whose perspectives and judgment are trusted and valued. Mentoring has been linked with beneficial employee outcomes such as affective organisational commitment, job involvement, and lower employee turnover intention (e.g., Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). Additionally, organisational mentors usually provide career-related and psychosocial support (Kram, 1985) to protégés. Mentoring is usually conceptualized with three components namely career-mentoring, psychosocial mentoring and role modelling but we expand theoretical and conceptual discourse to include pedagogy and continuous organisational learning as components of mentoring.

Furthermore, formal developmental relationships are respected forms of on-the-job experience utilized for learning (Janssen, Tahitu, Van Vuuren, & de Jong, 2018). Consistent with the social learning theory which posits that people in a social setting learn from one another via observation, imitation, and modelling (Bandura, 1977), the majority of formal mentoring programs allocate a junior manager to learn and observe from a senior manager. Mentoring is informal

whereby relationships develop naturally or spontaneously without outside assistance (Hu, Wang, Wang, Chen, & Jiang, 2016). Evidence indicates that the development of these relationships depends on the mentor's willingness to provide mentoring, the amount

of mentoring assistance provided to proteges, the mentor's and protégé's personality and lastly, the protégé's ability and willingness to learn (Dougherty, Turban & Haggard, 2010).

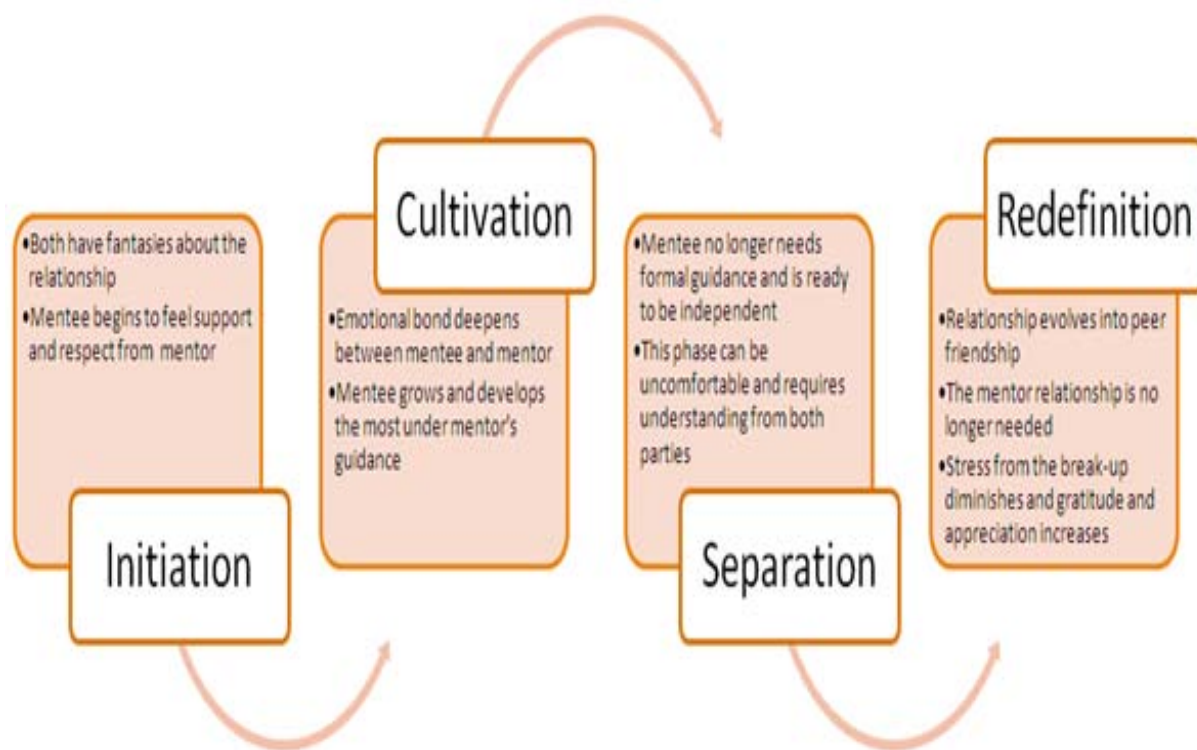


Figure 1: Phases of the mentoring relationship (Adopted from Kram, 1983)

These phases are not necessarily mutually-exclusive. Some findings have shown that although there are differences in protégé outcomes in each phase, some phases possess similar protégé outcomes. For instance, as discussed later, although psychosocial mentoring functions occur predominantly in the initiation phase, it is not restricted to only that phase (Dougherty, Turban & Haggard, 2010). Levinson (1978) and Kram (1985) were among the first researchers to explore mentoring relationships (MRs) in the context of adult development in organisational settings. They understood MRs at work as a distinctive relationship between individuals, a learning partnership, a process defined by the types of support provided by the mentor to the protégé with the ultimate goal being the protégé's growth and development, a reciprocal yet asymmetrical relationship and lastly, a dynamic relationship (Eby, Rhodes & Allen, 2010). This conceptualisation implies that support, learning by doing and reflection are core factors of the relationship between the mentor and the protégé. It also buttresses Benjamin Franklin's quote- "Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn".

b) Mentoring dimensions

Mentoring has been conceptualized by several authors (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Bozeman and Feeney, 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008) to include majorly career mentoring, psychosocial mentoring and role modelling. It is common for scholars to view mentoring as a senior employee in an organisation directing a younger employee. Beyond this, however, mentoring could be viewed in terms of reverse mentoring where the younger employee teaches and directs a senior colleague or peer-to-peer mentoring where employees on the same rank cohesively provide advice and support to each other. Also, we believe mentoring employees in a typical work setting can receive mentoring in different form and this served as an impetus for developing dimensions of mentoring which include career mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, role modelling, pedagogy and continuous organisational learning.

c) Career mentoring

Career mentoring, or career-related support, involves coaching, sponsorship, exposure, and protection of the lesser skilled protégé (Hall, Walkington, Shanahan, Ackley & Stewart, 2018). Career mentoring

behaviors involve task-related aspects of work and are often positively linked to more objective measures of success (Van Vianen, Rosenauer, Homan, Horstmeier & Voelpel, 2018). Benefits of career mentoring include extrinsic success factors such as compensation, promotion, and career mobility. There exists a strong link between career mentoring activities and positive employee outcomes (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008), including affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and reduced turnover intention. Individuals with high levels of job involvement tend to find career mentoring appealing and seek out such relationships. IT employees appear to face problems acquiring or benefiting from career mentoring due to work exhaustion, time and resource constraints, and high stress levels (Reid, Allen, Riemenschneider & Armstrong, 2008).

d) *Psychosocial mentoring*

Psychosocial mentoring, or psychosocial support, addresses “those aspects of the relationship that enhance an individual’s sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role” (Kram, 1985, p. 32). The benefits associated with psychosocial mentoring include affective outcomes such as affective organizational commitment or job involvement (e.g., Williams, 2017; Allen et al., 2004; Reid et al., 2008). Psychosocial mentoring includes intrinsic functions such as role modeling, acceptance, counseling, and friendship (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). Because mentors provide their protégés with psychosocial support and opportunities for development, they contribute to the general satisfaction of protégés above and beyond the extrinsic rewards they can secure for their protégés (Woo, 2017).

e) *Role Modelling*

This involves a mentee or younger employee looking to a senior employee as an example to be imitated. A mentor with referent power can impart appropriate behaviour patterns, attitudes, and values to protégés; thus, the mentor can efficiently lead the protégé to adapt to the organization and be seen as a role model to the mentee. A role model is a person who inspires someone else in some professional or personal way and serves as an example to that person (Onyia, 2008).

When the role model is also the individual’s mentor, he or she is someone whom the protégé admires or looks up to, a person the protégé would like to be more like. The mentor has reached a level of accomplishment in a role that the protégé aspires to with qualities and attributes that the mentee wishes to acquire. When people assume the role of mentor, they know that they will be role models, whether they like it or not. It will be their behavior that people will watch and emulate. It is their leadership qualities that they will study and want to duplicate. This puts tremendous pressure

on you as a mentor to be a good role model. After all, your mentee will hear about how you interacted with someone or how confident you seemed in a specific situation (Ayodeji & Adebayo, 2015).

f) *Pedagogy*

Mentoring, as pedagogy, results in enhancing effectiveness of workers in ensuring the transformation of workers into professionals by teaching proteges the requisite skills needed to do the job (Hobson & Malderez, 2013). Pedagogy is derived from paidagogos, a Greek word meaning teacher of children. Various authors have offered various definitions of pedagogy. Alexander (2008) has another definition that suggests that pedagogy requires discourse. He argues that pedagogy is the act of teaching as a discourse involving interaction with students, and not a mere monologue. Pedagogy is what one needs to know, and the skills one needs to possess in order to make and justify the many different kinds of decisions within a teaching setting. Hall (2015) suggested that pedagogy is a joint activity in which the learner has an active role. This is in line with Jones-Walker (2016) description of pedagogy as any conscious activity by one person (the teacher) designed to enhance the learning of another (the learner).

g) *Continuous organizational learning*

This is the ability to continually develop and improve one’s skills and knowledge in order to perform effectively and adapt to changes in the workplace. Dixon (2017) defined organizational learning (OL) as the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding. It is especially manifest in the ideal form of learning organizations that link learning to competitive advantage of firms. Organizational learning is a process by which an organization sustains and develops its dynamic capability through cognitive and behavioural change or improvement (Akinci & Sadler-Smith, 2018). Given that the primary goal of mentoring is to help protégés function independently, mentoring seems to have a natural overlap with self-regulation, or individuals’ self-generated cognitions, affects, and behaviors that are systematically oriented toward attainment of their goals (Sitzmann and Ely, 2011; Zimmerman, 1998).

h) *Theoretical background of mentoring*

Traditional theoretical perspectives conceived of mentoring as occurring in one-to-one mentor-protégé interactions (dyads) and through informal contacts (Shanks, 2017). Mentoring has been classically viewed as a means of fostering protégés’ acquisition of knowledge and skills to be used in trades and professions. Contemporary theories of mentoring share some commonalities with theories of learning, self-regulation, adult development, organizational behavior, leadership, and systems operation (Ragins, 2010).

Mentoring theory claims that the mentor is able to help the protégé develop a sense of competence, confidence and self-esteem through the provision of psychological support (Day & Allen, 2004). This view is clarified by the principles of social learning theory. According to Bandura (1977) "Learning would be laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action" (p. 22).

Simply put, the process of mentoring is facilitated by the protégé observing and modeling the behaviour of the mentor in the relevant social context. Carafarella (1999) further express the relevance of the social learning theory in reference to mentoring by stating "Social learning theories contribute to adult learning by highlighting the importance of social context and explicating the process of modeling and mentoring" (p. 139). In the same vein, the social cognitive theory supports the understanding of the mentoring theory. It states that knowledge can be enhanced by a close identification between the observer and the model as obtains between a protégé and a mentor. With adequate identification a connection that enables imitation is initiated. Bandura (1989) explains that behaviour, cognition and personal factors interact to produce the desired behaviour. The mentoring relationship is thus a reflection of how observation, imitation and identification of the mentor by the protégé are directed expertly to bring about a change in attitude, outlook and values in the protégé.

i) *Mentoring in Nigeria*

Mentoring is an old concept in Nigeria with it being conceptualised under the 'master/apprenticeship system' (Okurame, 2011). In a study conducted among pink, white and blue collar workers (Okurame, 2011), they concede that mentoring involves someone acting as a role model to influence and guide someone else to make better choices in life both career-wise and other aspects. In the Nigerian context, traditional mentoring's ethos between an older (mentor) and younger (mentee/protégé) employee although holds conceptual and procedural salience for mentoring, does not fully reflect the nature of MRs in Nigeria. It may be reverse mentoring (Murphy, 2012) where the younger employee is the mentor and the older employee is the protégé. To this end, Okurame (2011, p.39) defines mentoring as "a close, developmental relationship between two people in which a partner willingly avails him/herself of the full range of superior experience, knowledge, skills or status of the other partner in all spheres of human endeavour." Mentoring has become essential in light of human resource issues like poor job performance where

excellence should be exuded; and the ability of present employees to be included in the succession planning process of most organisations.

Also, Okurame and Balogun (2005) argue compellingly that the Nigerian banking industry is met with employees moving often from one bank to another for career advancement. The more successful employees' careers are, the more employees are willing to meet performance standards and to be committed to their organisation. Therefore, management have sought to implement formal mentoring programmes to help solve this performance deficit. However, informal mentoring rather than formal is more predominant in Nigeria because the MR easily develops over time especially when the employee's commitment to his/her career within the organisation is high.

Despite the afore-mentioned, informal MRs in Nigeria are also stimulated by similarity in ethnic background and 'institutional affiliation' (Okurame, 2011) i.e. the MR is likely to be more productive and successful if both parties are from the same tribe or university. Drawing on Hofstede's (1994) cultural dimensions, Nigeria has a high power distance compared to Britain and this affects the development of close personal relationships which therefore raises implications for MNCs. Another difference from the UK is where Nigeria especially in academia respects the elderly's wisdom and uses retired mentors. Despite these differences, in UK, mentoring works easier in hastening the development of local nationals to take over from expatriates (Clutterbuck, 2004) compared to Nigeria.

Additionally, slightly different from the West, psychosocial functions with emphasis on role-modelling initially emerges before career-related functions. This is so because Nigerians value loyalty and need to generate trust and friendship first with their mentor before the career-development function emerges.

Still, mentoring faces problems such as reluctance of mentors to assume the role due to time constraints, inadequate empirical research on mentoring in Nigerian organisations, thereby leading to issues of generalizing Western research findings to the Nigerian context. Also, mentoring outcomes can be negative or perceived as inequality amongst non-mentored employees (Okurame, 2011). For example, both parties exploiting the relationship for their own selfish gains outside of what is to be achieved or an instance of backstabbing amongst each other or from non-mentored employees. Also, if the MR is not successful, it may adversely affect the succession-planning mechanism which leads to decreased organisational effectiveness in the organisation (Clutterbuck, 2004).

Conclusively, MRs in most organisations are not usually formally constituted. However, informal MRs thrives because of the informal work environment created among employees. These relationships develop

more in a protégés hierarchical line of responsibility with mentoring dyads made up of same and cross-gender mix.

j) *Organisational commitment*

Organisational commitment is a three-dimensional construct which refers to identification with an employing organisation, the cost associated with leaving the organisation and feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. It has three constituents namely: Affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Affective commitment is “an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” while continuance commitment is “an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization” and lastly, normative commitment “reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). Organisational commitment is important because high levels of commitment lead to several favourable organizational outcomes. It reflects the extent to which employees identify with an organisation and is committed to its goals. It is an important construct because it may be used to predict employees' performance, absenteeism and other behaviours (Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider & Armstrong, 2013).

Affective commitment is related to decentralization of decision making and formalization of policy and procedures. Individuals' affective commitment to their organisation is firstly based on identification with the desire to establish a rewarding relationship with an organisation. Secondly, through internalisation, this refers to congruent goals and values held by individuals and the organisation. The antecedents of affective commitment generally fall into four categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics (organisational), job-related characteristics and work experiences. Members of an organisation who are committed on an affective level stay with the organisation because they view their personal employment relationship as congruent to the goals and values of the organization.

Normative commitment develops when an organisation provides the employee with rewards in advance (paying college tuition) or incurs significant costs in providing employment (head hunting fees or the costs associated with job training). Recognition of these investment causes employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organisation until the debt has been repaid. Employees who have a strong normative commitment remain in the organisation because they ought to (Allen & Meyer, 2008).

Continuance commitment is increased when they believe that the company is doing its best to prevent layoffs. It refers to an awareness of the costs

associated with leaving the organisation. The potential costs of leaving an organisation include the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring non-transferable skills, losing attractive benefits, giving up seniority-based privileges, or having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships. Apart from the costs involved in leaving the organisation, continuance commitment will also develop as a function of a lack of alternative employment opportunities, employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because the need to. Accrued investments and poor employment alternatives tend to force individuals to maintain their line of action and are responsible for these individuals to maintain their line of action and are responsible for these individuals being committed because they need to. This implies that individuals stay in the organisation, because they are lured by other accumulated investments which they could lose, such as pension plans, seniority or organisation specific skills. An employee's continuance commitment is gauged by his/ her assessment of whether the costs of leaving the organisation are greater than the costs of staying. The antecedents of continuance commitment include anything that increases the perceived cost of leaving the organisation, the antecedents are side bets or investments and the availability of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 2011). It is calculative in nature because of the individual's perception or weighing of costs and risks associated with leaving the current organisation.

k) *Behavioural implications of mentoring*

Mentoring has received widespread empirical studies (Hall, Walkington, Shanahan, Ackley & Stewart, 2018; Allen et al., 2008) perhaps because academics and practitioners value its practical implications for organisational success. Mentoring can be largely linked to employees' behavioural outcomes like employee commitment, job satisfaction, employee performance, intent to leave an organisation and skill development. Mentoring has a positive relationship with employee commitment if protégés have gained subjective and objective benefits like higher incomes and promotion rates (Ramaswami and Dreher, 2010), thus leading to increased organizational commitment. Mentors have gained higher organisational power and personal satisfaction and organisations themselves have reported improved employee motivation, better communication, reduced turnover and retention of talented employees in their succession planning process (Arora & Rangnekar, 2015). However, mentoring's negative relationship with commitment occurs when the mentoring programmes are not structured appropriately or are not perceived as effective. Sometimes there are dysfunctional mentoring relations like instances of abuse of power, aggressiveness or provoking diversity issues which can

then lead to mentoring having a negative impact on commitment (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2010).

Moreover, McKeivitt & Marshall (2015) found that mentees are more committed when mentors on the programme liked and respected them and gave them the opportunity to interact. Most importantly, for mentoring to aid commitment, best practice/effective mentoring is when mentoring programmes state its objectives and intended outcomes which will guide decisions (regarding participants and processes) about the program's structure. Bear & Hwang (2017) found that common mentoring objectives include aiding succession planning, improving employees' skills, and increasing workplace diversity. Still, even with objectives, mentoring's success depends on answers to

questions like these: Who participates in the program? Do the mentors have the KSAs (Knowledge, skills and abilities)? How similar are both parties' skill sets and job roles? What is their motivation and why are they interested? Are protégés selected randomly or are they volunteers? Are protégés allowed to make decisions? How is mentoring program monitored and evaluated?

1) Conceptual model for mentoring dimensions

The researchers' conceptual model below is inductive and deductive in nature and is recommended to aid the mentorship process:

The mentee has to identify their specific needs and determine the most efficient way to get it from their mentor as seen below.

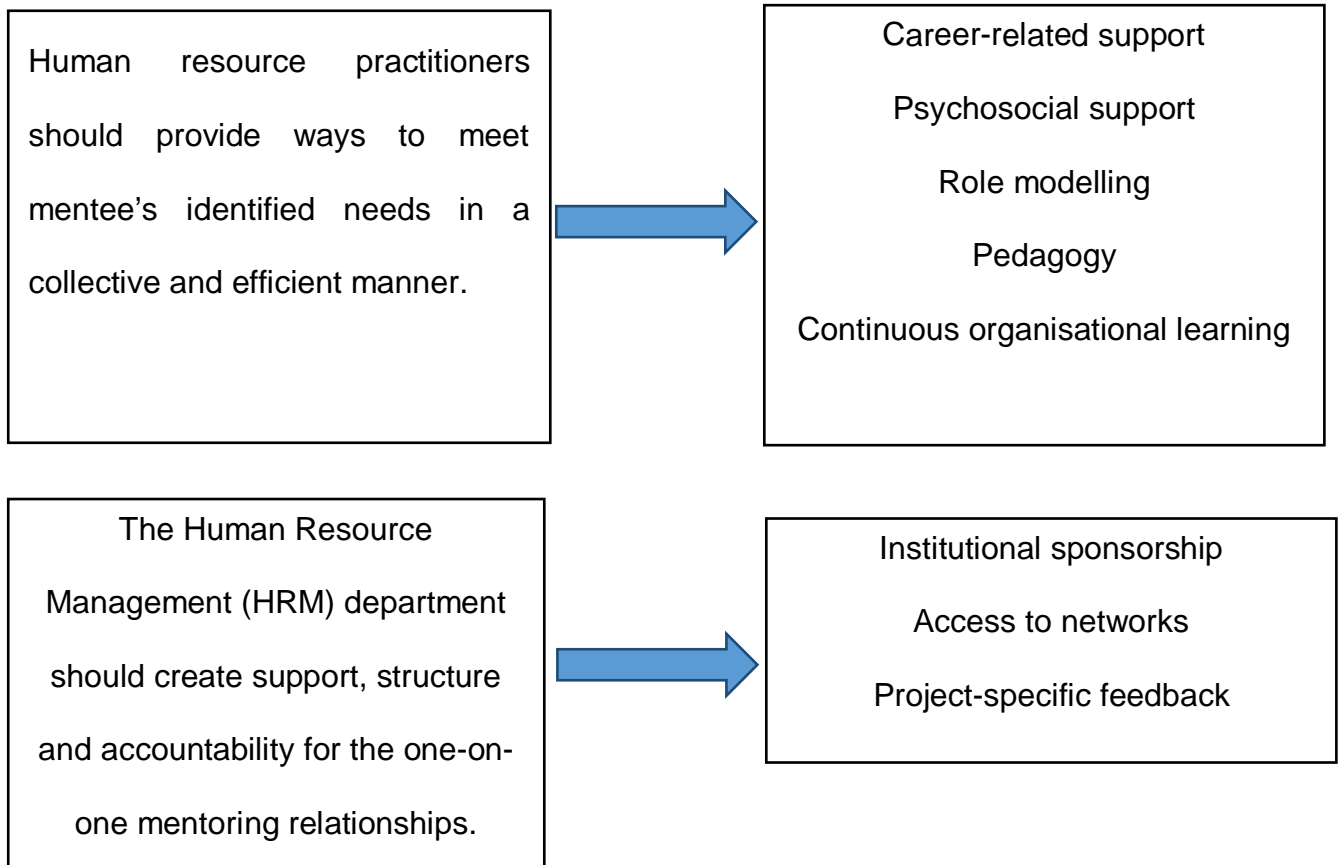


Figure 2: Researcher's conceptual model for mentorship (2019)

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

We used descriptive and cross sectional survey research design. We used this because it focuses on vital facts, beliefs, opinions, demographic information, attitudes, motives and behaviors of respondents giving responses to the research instrument. In addition, the survey research design is perceived as authoritative by people in general and is both comparatively easy to explain and to understand (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Several studies (Pfund, House, Spencer, Asquith, Carney, Masters & Fleming, 2013; Turban, Moake, Wu

& Cheung, 2017) have used cross-sectional surveys to establish the effect of mentoring on employee organisational commitment because surveys using questionnaires allow for the collection of standardized data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way, allowing easy comparison.

a) Setting and sample

The target population that was used in this study included the teaching or academic staff of six selected private universities in South-West Nigeria (Achiever's University, Ondo state, Caleb University,

Lagos state, Covenant University, Ogun state, Crawford University, Ogun state, Lead City University, Oyo state and Redeemer's University, Osun state) with a total population of 1678 academic staff with a retrieved sample size of 315 academic staff (response rate of. These academic staff were chosen as they work on a regular basis and are likely to be more informed and therefore are in a better position to answer the research questions than non-regular staff to respond meaningfully to the questions. The selection of the six private universities across five states was done on the basis that each of them had been in operation for a period of 10 years and above. I used 10 years as a baseline in order to harness significant responses from experienced staff of the universities. Only Ekiti state although makes up part of the states in South West Nigeria was not chosen because Afe Babalola University- the only private university in the state did not meet the 10 years of existence criterion.

The sampling unit was the academic staff of the selected private universities, who were surveyed because they are regular employees who have information about the existence or lack thereof of mentoring programmes. For the interviews, professors who should serve as mentors were surveyed so as to garner information about how much support they provide to junior lecturers and how mentoring can increase human resource development which in turn would improve organisational development.

Mixed sampling technique was used for the study. Precisely, multistage sampling, stratified, purposive and simple random sampling techniques were implemented. Multistage sampling was used because it divides large populations into stages to make the sampling process more practical and because it is the most appropriate for a large scale survey.

Six private universities were selected from the 14 universities in South West Nigeria which are at least 10 years old. Six private universities was used in order to give equal opportunity to each state to be represented. All the private universities were stratified in number of years of their existence and six universities was chosen through purposive sampling from those that are 10 years and above, after which the copies of the questionnaire were randomly administered to teaching staff that are on a regular employment status. This was to ensure that every element of the population has an equal chance of being selected in order to avoid bias in the selection of respondents. Stratified sampling was used because it ensures each subgroup within the population receives proper representation within the sample.

For the semi-structured interviews, purposive sampling was used to select six head of departments and mentees each from different departments in the universities who could give an in-depth understanding of mentoring and the implications for employees.

Purposive sampling was used because it allows the researcher use their discretion or judgement to pick the participants who are best suited to answer their research questions, thus selection is based on people with experience and perspectives on mentoring to give in-depth knowledge (Anderson, 2013). The primary data were collected through the use of the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

b) Procedures

A pilot study of 10 participants excluded from the study was also conducted in order to test the efficacy of the questions. Factual (e.g. Are you involved in formal/informal/no mentoring?) and subjective (e.g. Was it effective?) questions were asked. Also, the pilot study aided the preliminary analysis of issues to ascertain whether or not respondents tend to answer questions in different ways (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

For the interviews, after permission was granted, they were recorded and notes were taken. Before starting each interview, interviewees were assured of anonymity and confidentiality of their responses. Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes and the same questions were asked to all respondents from the universities. Interviewees (professors and junior lecturers) were probed when needed so as to clarify and explore issues further.

c) Measures

The questionnaire was abridged based on Noe's (1988) 15-item Mentoring Functions questionnaire and Mowday et al.'s (1979) 15-item plus Allen and Meyer's (1990) 24-item organisational commitment questionnaires with the former measuring mentoring while the latter questionnaires measured organisational commitment. These instruments were used as they are the most widely used measures for each variable and have been proved to have reliability, convergent validity and internal consistency.

Regarding mentoring, 6 items were developed to assess how high or low protégés received mentoring support (E.g. Mentees' career progression) while 15 items were developed to assess the protégé's level of organisational commitment with 13 items focusing on affective commitment (e.g. loyalty towards organisation) and the last two focused on continuance and normative commitment respectively. Affective commitment had more items because it has been proved to be more valuable for organisations in helping them gain competitive advantage and promoting the adoption of their values through mentoring (Payne and Huffman, 2005). Nevertheless in order to measure the new scale's reliability, Cronbach's Alpha reliability test was applied. The amount of time spent with mentors and the gender composition of the mentoring dyad were also determined.

Regarding the semi-structured interviews, although abridged, questions were asked based on

previous questions used by qualitative researchers (Allen et al., 1997) and based on the literature review and research questions. Permission to use existing questions was granted to the researcher by Allen. Although there were standard questions, they were designed in a way that allowed the researcher to probe when necessary. Questions asked sought to get information related to each major content area of the study but other questions emerged during the interviews and replaced a few ones. Also, at the onset, demographic information was also collected.

d) Data analysis

The information collected from copies of the questionnaire were collated, scored and computed in percentages with the use of statistical software called Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. The results obtained from the questionnaire administered were subjected to various descriptive statistical tests such as frequency counts and simple percentages. The qualitative data collected from interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed using thematic content analysis.

The target respondents in the study were academic staff working in six selected private universities in South-West, Nigeria. A total number of four hundred and seven (407) copies of the questionnaire were administered, three hundred and fifteen (315) were filled, returned and considered usable, which represents 77.39% response rate. Correlation analysis was used to express the relationship between the two variables, and estimated the value of the dependent variable (Y) based on a selected value of the independent variable (X), (Fornell and Cha, 1994). For the purpose of this paper, it was used to determine the relationship between the independent variable-mentoring and the dependent variable – organisational commitment. The parameters used to measure mentoring were the mentoring functions, while those used to measure OC were affective, normative and continuance commitment. The p-value was then utilized to see if the results were statistically significant. To be significant, the sig. value needs to be 0.05 or smaller. In both companies, the p-value was higher than 0.05 therefore the results were not statistically significant and did not need to be factored in the qualitative data analysis (Pallant, 2013).

The questionnaire (see appendix 1) was divided into four sections. The first section consisted of demographics which measured variables such as gender, educational level, age, length of service to current organisation. The second section measured the mentoring functions variables. The 3rd section measured organisational commitment. The final section had open-ended questions that linked mentoring and OC.

Questionnaires were structured using the Likert scale ranging from very high (1) to very low (6) which

indicated the rate at which respondents gave answers as regards the mentoring and organisational commitment questions. The likert scale encourages respondents to use all points of the scale (Bryman, 2012). Through this, their level of agreement to whether they perceive that their mentor was providing psychosocial and career-related support was found.

For the qualitative data, thematic content analysis specifically template analysis was used. After the transcription, we organised the data into manageable form using NVivo and Word. Descriptive and analytic codes were developed and from them, themes were created based on the researcher's intuition and literature review. Several predetermined and emergent themes were identified including the interviewee's experience as a mentor or protégé, the mentoring relationship, mentoring's relationship with organisational commitment, self-motivation, satisfaction with reward schemes and employee involvement. Participants believed mentoring to be important and have a positive relationship with organisational commitment but several experienced significant difficulty with establishing productive relationships.

IV. RESULTS

Based on the demographical data, respondents reported having at least one mentor with 13.7% and 86.3% respondents reporting that they were involved in formal and informal mentoring respectively. There were 167 female and 148 male respondents. Respondents' highest educational qualification were B Sc, 36(11.4%), M Sc 49(15.6%) and PhD 219 (69.5%). This suggested that an appreciable number of the respondents sampled have at least an undergraduate education. Additionally, 90.6% of respondents reported receiving career-related support while 9.4% of respondents reported receiving psychosocial support from their mentors.

a) Research Objective, Research Question and Research Hypothesis, Analysis and Discussion

Objective: Investigate the relationship of mentoring dimensions and employee commitment in selected private universities in South-West Nigeria.

Research question: What relationship does mentoring dimensions have with employee commitment in selected private universities in South-West Nigeria?

To achieve this, the respondents were asked to indicate how high or how low they perceived the statements in relation to career-related support, psychosocial support, role modeling, pedagogy, continuous organisational learning and employee commitment of selected private universities in South-West Nigeria. The responses were on a six-point Likert scale (6=Very High, 5=High, 4=Moderately High, 3=Moderately Low, 2=Low and 1=Very Low). The research findings for the study variables showed the

resultant frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of the variables.

They are presented as follows:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics on Career-related support

	Very High	High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Low	Very Low	Missing	Total	
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Mean	Standard Deviation
Mentee Career Progression	19.4%	30.2%	29.2%	4.1%	0.3%	0.3%	16.5%	3.97	1.95
Coordination of Professional Goals	17.5%	33.3%	28.9%	2.5%	0.6%	1.0%	16.2%	3.97	1.94
Aids Achievements of Career Aspirations	21.9%	28.6%	29.8%	2.5%	1.0%	0.0%	16.2%	4.03	1.96
Grand Total								3.9905	1.91067

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Psychosocial support

	Very High	High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Low	Very Low	Missing	Total	
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sharing of Personal Problems	9.2	25.7	29.2	10.8	4.1	4.1	16.8	3.45	1.92
Receives Counselling	1.9	18.1	31.4	26.3	3.5	1.3	17.5	3.15	1.69
Friendly and Maintains Strict Confidentiality	1.9	24.1	32.7	21.3	1.3	1.3	17.5	3.30	1.74
Grand Total								3.3016	1.66019

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on Role Modeling

	Very High	High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Low	Very Low	Missing	Total	
	%	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	N %	Mean	Standard Deviation
Imitation of Mentor	10.8	35.9	28.9	5.1	1.9	0.3	17.1	3.79	1.91
Leadership Impartation	15.9	31.1	24.8	9.8	1.0	0.3	17.1	3.82	1.96
Behavioural Appropriateness of Mentor	14.0	36.5	26.0	5.1	0.6	0.6	17.1	3.88	1.95
Grand Total								3.8275	1.87250

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics on Pedagogy

	Very High	High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Low	Very Low	Missing	Total	
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	N %	Mean	Standard Deviation
Provision of Good Working Knowledge of Job Assignment	13.0	34.3	25.1	9.2	0.6	0.6	17.1	3.79	1.94
Teaching of Requisite Skills	11.1	32.1	28.3	8.6	2.5	0.6	16.8	3.71	1.91
Demonstration of Integration of Organisational Strategy With Role Alignment	11.4	31.1	26.7	8.9	1.3	3.5	17.1	3.63	1.96
Grand Total								3.7143	1.87796

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics on Continuous Organizational Learning

	Very High	High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Low	Very Low	Missing	Total	
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	N %	Mean	Standard Deviation
Talent Management	8.3	23.5	33.7	10.2	2.9	4.1	17.5	3.42	1.90
Growth In Knowledge About Grant Writing	3.5	10.2	25.5	26.8	12.4	5.1	16.6	2.84	1.67
Novel Idea Development	2.5	8.6	28.9	34.9	5.7	2.5	16.8	2.92	1.59
Learning Aligns With Personal Goal Achievement Like Receiving Grants	2.9	9.8	30.2	27.9	8.3	4.8	16.2	2.92	1.64
Grand Total								3.0687	1.74567

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics on Employee commitment

Affective Commitment	Very High	High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Low	Very Low	Missing	Total	
	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Row N %	Mean	Standard Deviation
Exertion of Efforts Beyond Expectations	11.1	41.6	41.9	3.2	0.0	0.3	1.9	4.52	0.98
Publicizing your Organisation	13.3	45.1	34.6	3.2	1.0	1.0	1.9	4.56	1.06
Loyalty Towards your Organization	20.6	44.4	30.8	2.2	0.3	0.3	1.3	4.77	0.97
Acceptance of Job Assignments	18.1	44.4	32.7	1.9	1.3	0.3	1.3	4.70	0.99
Alignment of Personal Values With Organization Value	15.9	41.3	36.2	2.5	1.3	1.3	1.6	4.58	1.08
Sense of Pride About Organization	20.0	45.4	28.3	3.2	1.0	1.0	1.3	4.72	1.05
Possibility of Working Elsewhere	21.0	35.9	27.3	7.9	4.1	1.3	2.5	4.48	1.32
Organizational-Led Performance	21.0	39.5	27.4	3.8	3.2	2.5	2.5	4.54	1.33

Grand Total								4.6210	.75457
Continuance Commitment									
Likelihood of Leaving	8.9	13.7	12.7	42.5	13.7	6.7	1.9	3.34	1.39
Happiness About Choice of Job	20.3	31.1	36.5	6.3	2.9	1.0	1.9	4.49	1.21
Benefits From Staying in this Organisation	20.0	39.0	33.0	2.5	2.2	0.6	2.5	4.60	1.19
Reputation of the Organisation	39.0	28.9	27.0	2.2	0.0	1.0	1.9	4.94	1.17
Grand Total								4.3437	.85746
Normative Commitment									
Fear of Quitting	6.0	9.5	8.3	35.6	28.6	10.2	1.9	2.91	1.37
Negative Consequences of Leaving the Organisation	5.4	13.7	14.9	27.9	24.4	11.7	1.9	3.05	1.44
Sense of Obligation to Remain	25.7	23.5	25.1	14.9	5.1	3.2	2.5	4.30	1.49
Grand Total								3.4190	1.02312

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Relating results in table 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 together, the mentoring dimensions (career-related support, psychosocial support, role modelling, pedagogy, continuous organisational learning) have differing patterns of increase with employee commitment as it relates to affective, continuance and normative commitment of selected private universities in South-West Nigeria. Our findings reveal that the universities surveyed that have informal or formal mentoring have provided career-related support to mentees as most of them tended towards "moderately high" in their responses. Also, the findings show a moderate representation of the academic staff surveyed have received psychosocial support. Additionally, role modelling and pedagogy showed a moderately high representation by the respondents. Continuous organisational learning was also revealed to have a moderately low representation by respondents. Our findings suggest that mentoring dimensions may or may not have a relationship with employee commitment of selected private universities in South-West Nigeria. This provided an answer to research question one and enabled the researcher to achieve the objective one of this study.

Hypothesis: Mentoring dimensions has no significant relationship with employee commitment in selected private universities in South-West Nigeria.

In order to test the hypothesis, correlation analysis was conducted using employee commitment as the dependent variable, and the five mentoring dimensions: career-related support, psychosocial support, role modelling, pedagogy and continuous organisational learning as the independent variables. Table 7 presents the correlation results.

Table 7: Correlation results for Hypothesis

		Career related support	Psychological Support	Role Modelling	Pedagogy / training	Continuous Organizational learning	Employee commitment
Career related support	Pearson Correlation	1	.823**	.820**	.789**	.720**	.121*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.032
	N	315	315	315	315	315	315
Psychosocial Support	Pearson Correlation	.823**	1	.858**	.829**	.756**	.150**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.008
	N	315	315	315	315	315	315
Role Modelling	Pearson Correlation	.820**	.858**	1	.931**	.802**	.159**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.005
	N	315	315	315	315	315	315
Pedagogy/training	Pearson Correlation	.789**	.829**	.931**	1	.809**	.188**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.001
	N	315	315	315	315	315	315
Continuous Organizational Learning	Pearson Correlation	.720**	.756**	.802**	.809**	1	.203**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	315	315	315	315	315	315
Employee commitment	Pearson Correlation	.121*	.150**	.159**	.188**	.203**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.032	.008	.005	.001	.000	
	N	315	315	315	315	315	315
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The relationship between mentoring dimensions (as measured by career-related support, psychosocial support, role modelling, pedagogy and continuous organisational learning') and employee commitment (as it relates to affective, continuance and normative commitment) was investigated in selected private universities in South-West Nigeria using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. We performed preliminary analyses to ensure no violation of the assumptions of multicollinearity amongst the explanatory variables. There was a weak, positive correlation between employee commitment and mentoring dimensions with a correlation coefficient of 0.121, 0.150, 0.159, 0.188, 0.203 respectively, which implies that employee commitment may improve a little with the presence of mentoring dimensions (career-related support, psychosocial support, role modelling, pedagogy and continuous organisational learning) in the selected private universities in South-West Nigeria. The p value shows a high level of statistical significance ($P < 0.05$) which led to the rejection of the null hypothesis one.

V. DISCUSSIONS

The results of the correlation analysis for the relationship with mentoring dimensions and employee commitment of selected private universities in South-West Nigeria provided an overall significant view. The combination of the independent variables was statistically significant in showing that a relationship exists with employee commitment of the selected private universities. As in previous research (Hall, Walkington, Shanahan, Ackley & Stewart, 2018; Payne and Huffman, 2005), the correlation analysis found that mentoring dimensions was positively related to employee commitment in selected private universities in South-West Nigeria. The contrasting results in the different dimensions of mentoring may be explained by the variables used in the correlation analysis and the differences between the contextual factors like organisational culture and policies in the different universities.

Conceptually, Kohlmeyer, Parker & Sincich (2017) noted that research has indicated that robust mentoring helps people with their career advancement and satisfaction, supports faculty retention and contributes to academic productivity. There is no single right way of establishing mentoring systems to acquire such benefits, but the approach taken must be appropriate for the specific circumstance. Cifti, Erturk, Doganalp & Kiziloglu (2017) however offer some basic principles that can be applied to any situation. The first principle is that the mentor needs to act and be impartial and independent of management. Secondly, the purpose of the mentoring relationship needs to be agreed to and reviewed by both parties.

Our findings gives credence to the theoretical assumption of the self-regulated learning theory. It emphasizes the need for the mentee to function independently of the mentor in enhancing their personal growth and development and improve their commitment on the job. The mentoring relationship is invariably beneficial to the employee or the mentee and it strengthens personal goal achievement and eventually organisational goal achievement.

Overall, the relationship between the two variables validates the fact that mentoring is to a certain extent a necessity for building and maintaining the loyalty of employees in the selected private universities in the educational sector in Nigeria. Hartmann et al., (2013) and Okurame (2008a) support this fact. In their studies, they discovered that effective mentoring will improve employees' commitment. According to Allen and Eby (2010), the lifetime value of committed employees can be enormous. This further stresses the importance of winning employees' loyalty and the fact that this can be achieved through effective mentoring relationships.

Furthermore, mentoring has a positive relationship with employee commitment if protégés have gained subjective and objective benefits like higher incomes and promotion rates (Ramaswami and Dreher, 2010), thus leading to increased OC. Mentors have gained higher organisational power and personal satisfaction and organisations themselves have reported improved employee motivation, better communication, reduced turnover and retention of talented employees in their succession planning process (Arora & Rangnekar, 2015). However, mentoring's negative relationship with commitment occurs when the mentoring programmes are not structured appropriately or are not perceived as effective. Sometimes there are dysfunctional mentoring relations like instances of abuse of power, aggressiveness or provoking diversity issues which can then lead to mentoring having a negative impact on commitment (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2010). Our qualitative findings as revealed by the mentees and mentors who were asked questions as to how mentoring dimensions is related with employee commitment are seen below: As regards career-related support, all of the interviewees both mentees and mentors agreed that there is a relationship between career-related support and employee commitment. A professor said: "of course, mentoring people enables me stay committed, because I become better by making others better and seeing them progress gives me joy.

Mentoring is valuable for transmitting employee commitment because mentors provide invaluable information on the mission and philosophies and career pathways in the organisation (Fleig-Palmer, 2009). Interviewees from all the selected private universities supported this argument and had several comments on

how mentoring encouraged organisational commitment. Responses from a mentor and mentee:

"Looking back, mentoring has definitely increased my commitment to Covenant University to a large extent because I feel a deeper sense of belonging....[xxx]I am not so sure about my commitment in the past year but in previous years, my commitment was higher. Presently, I will say mentoring has just maintained it."

"To be honest, I am more committed...I know more because of my mentor's teachings, which has helped me move the organisation forward. However, this commitment is only for as long as I am here because I have a timeline I am working with..."

Although these responses explain mentoring's link with organisational commitment, an interviewee from Redeemer's University reported that despite mentoring, some employees serving as proteges/mentees in academia do not feel committed because of the hoarding of knowledge by experienced academics and the stringent nature of policies regarding career-advancement promotion and reward opportunities. This is why they all preferred the informal nature of mentoring in their university. Making mentoring formal in their opinions brings more rigidity into the sector, a notion supported by Okurame (2011). Accordingly, one interviewee from Lead City University said simply that "scrap the formal process and mentoring will be effective in improving the commitment of my team..." However, all the interviewees selected agreed that mentoring dimensions has (to a large extent) a positive relationship with organisational commitment.

Regarding the effectiveness of mentoring, almost all the interviewees except one from Achiever's University did not believe that the mentoring received were effective. The interviewees said that the factors that affect the effectiveness are conflicting priorities, inadequate time and poor feedback from both parties. Also, they all agreed that although they have people they speak to informally, the formal process with one final year makes it difficult for them to build and maintain substantial mentoring relationships. Consistent with Clutterbuck (2004), two interviewees agreed that a timetable and clear-cut mentoring objectives may help improve mentoring's effectiveness in universities. Another said an informal process will be better.

Conversely, a mentee in Redeemer's University, the factors that affect the effectiveness are lack of seriousness and interest from both parties and management. A mentor suggested this to resolve the problem:

"A combination of formal and informal mentoring is good whereby a probationary period allows mentees to choose the mentors they gravitate towards and are compatible with (informal)... Thus, management did not force the relationship but such

relationship will be measured during performance evaluation thereby making it formal... Here, a mentoring slot in the performance evaluation form will measure the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship against the performance indicators that management have... This then somewhat reduces the rigidity of the mentoring process...Through this, the mentoring relationship is beneficial to the mentor because the mentor is credited for being involved in people development and thus motivated to make the most out of the mentoring relationship. However, this may lead to mentors pressurizing mentees by bombarding them with work. I give some of my junior lecturers my work to do and they do it without complaining"

Notwithstanding, the informal process of mentees choosing their mentors may have an issue if mentees have an affinity with a particular mentor. However, there can now be for e.g. a formal timetable to ensure order and fairness. Additionally, all interviewees from both companies reported that if mentoring was effective, it will definitely increase their employee commitment.

An emergent theme as to what inspires employee commitment is self-motivation. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation generally involves persistence, direction and energy. Specifically intrinsic motivation can be seen as a propellant for employee commitment. Gagné et al., (2008) suggest that motivation influences and is related to employee commitment. This is true because for example, many Google employees seem intrinsically motivated and their commitment to Google comes from within despite all the perks of being a google employee. Some employees may identify with mentoring and see it as a process that increases their organisational commitment based on its perceived meaning and because they identify with mentoring's value whilst keeping their personal goals in mind whereas others may be committed to their organisation based on what stems from within. Take for example, responses from mentors and mentees respectively on what inspires their employee commitment:

"I feel loyal not necessarily because of mentoring but because I am self-motivated and whatever company I find myself in, I always try my hardest to give my all to such and such company in order to remain self-fulfilled and leave a good legacy..."

"For sure, through mentoring, I have learned more and mastered some skills but [xxxx] ...whether mentoring exists or not, I have personal goals I intend to achieve. So, I will remain committed as long as I don't lose sight of achieving my goals".

These responses imply that self-motivation usually gained intrinsically is one of the bases through which employee commitment develops. People will usually feel attached to an organisation if and when they

feel like it or want to. Thus, it can be said that self-motivation begets good job performance which usually begets good rewards leading to increased job satisfaction and ultimately, employee commitment.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

While it has been noted that the issue of mentoring has not been reconceptualised in contemporary times, the article indicated that mentoring is a viable tool for developing skills and leadership in different workplaces and it has behavioural implications for employees. Therefore, human resource directors, practitioners and the entire management of several organisations should develop mentoring programs and evaluate them properly in order to lead to desirable employee outcomes like commitment, job satisfaction, performance and skill development. Organisations will benefit from this study so as to help them develop formal structures, policies and procedures for mentoring to increase employee commitment, job satisfaction, employee performance, skill development and reduce employees' intent to leave.

This article will also enable various sectors to proactively respond to changes within the work environment more effectively as well as enable them implement better business strategy that aligns with Human Resources (HR) strategy. Furthermore, this article will enable the government in policy making with regards to mentoring across all industries to give a mandate that mentoring programs be adequately structured in their systems to track career progression and improve employee performance.

It is also helpful to human resource managers to properly implement human resource development practices by integrating individual, career and organization development roles in order to achieve maximum productivity, quality, opportunity and fulfilment of employees as they work to accomplish organizational goals.

Furthermore, for successful departmental mentoring programs in organisations, human resource managers should assign a departmental mentoring committee. Human resource managers should also initiate and model difficult conversations. There should also be alternative and additional mechanisms for mentoring programs' evaluation and assessment. Human resource practitioners should also designate the service mentor to monitor the cumulative total of service requests and should advise when or how to say "no". Furthermore, feedback loops must be built in every semester with consistent, clear, and meaningful annual evaluation. Finally, achievements should be recognized and success celebrated. Lastly, it will enable the society to be more informed about the tenets of mentoring literature and also provide them with more conceptual knowledge with regards to mentoring and employees'

behavioural outcomes in both the public and private sectors. We recommended the following:

- i. Management of universities needs to invest more in mentoring, training and employee retention schemes in host-country environment to improve employees' organisational commitment.
- ii. Every university should put in place structures that would support mentoring and align it with faculty's promotion in terms of attaching key performance indicators to the performance appraisal system. Mentees' career and personal development can be attached to the promotion criteria for a professorial rank.
- iii. The management of universities should make some policy reformations as regards increasing the timeline of the mentoring relationship because proteges/mentees find it hard to gain substantial psychosocial support within one academic year.
- iv. The human resources department needs to evaluate the success of the existent informal mentoring and should ensure that it has strategies in place to eliminate the preconceived notions of employees seeking to advance their careers elsewhere after working for some years with them.

VII. DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The development of the five-component conceptualization of mentoring intended to give a summary of mentoring research to date. It is clear that there are gaps in the mentoring literature yet to be filled. Identification of these gaps should give a direction for further researchers. To begin with, there should be more causal effects and relationship studies with mentoring and other employee outcome variables. Further studies should also be carried out comparatively to ensure robustness and specificity of the relationship between mentoring components and employees' behavioural outcomes. The moderating effect of organisational culture could also be examined. Further studies can also consider including other models linking the mentoring components using quantitative methods like structural equation modelling.

Also, for the advancement of this study, future research might adopt an experimental or longitudinal research design (i.e. creating scenarios for each of the mentoring dimensions). This would help in drawing a better conclusion as the environment can be controlled and future researchers would be able to observe any differences in organisational commitment as it relates to mentoring.

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APPENDIX 1

Mentoring Dimensions and Organisational Commitment of Selected Private Universities in South-West Nigeria.

Please answer the following by ticking the one you consider most appropriate among the alternatives.

Section A: Demographics

1.	Please place a check mark beside your gender.	<input type="radio"/> Male	<input type="checkbox"/> Female
2.	Please check the age range which best fits your age.	<input type="radio"/> 21-29 <input type="radio"/> 30-39 <input type="radio"/> 40-49 <input type="radio"/> 50-59 <input type="radio"/> 60 and above	
3.	Check the category that closely fits with your current job title.	<input type="radio"/> Lecturer <input type="checkbox"/> Supervisor Other (please specify).....	
4.	Please place a check beside your ethnic background.	<input type="radio"/> Igbo <input type="radio"/> Yoruba <input type="radio"/> Hausa <input type="radio"/> Other	
5.	Please indicate the approximate number of years you have worked in your current role.	<input type="radio"/> < 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 3-7 <input type="checkbox"/> 8-10 <input type="radio"/> 11-13 <input type="checkbox"/> 14-16 <input type="checkbox"/> 16+	
6.	Please indicate the approximate number of years you have worked in your current organization.	<input type="radio"/> < 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 3-7 <input type="checkbox"/> 8-10 <input type="radio"/> 11-13 <input type="checkbox"/> 14-16 <input type="checkbox"/> 16+	
7.	Please place a check beside the size of your organization.	<input type="radio"/> Fewer than 500 <input type="checkbox"/> More than 500	
8.	Please place a check mark beside the industry that best matches the industry you currently work.	<input type="radio"/> Academia <input type="checkbox"/> Others	
9.	Please place a check mark beside the specialty area that best matches the area in which you currently work.	<input type="radio"/> Teaching/ lecturing	
		<input type="checkbox"/> Finance	
		<input type="checkbox"/> Accounting	
		<input type="checkbox"/> Human resources	
10.	Please place a check to indicate your educational level. (Please check all that apply).	<input type="radio"/> Bachelors	<input type="checkbox"/> Masters
			<input type="checkbox"/> PhD/Doctorate

Section B: Mentoring

For *Mentoring (X)*, the following sub variables (Career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, role modelling, pedagogy, continuous organizational learning) will be used. For *employee outcomes (Y)*, employee commitment, job satisfaction, intent to leave, employee performance and skill development were used as sub variables.

Please indicate the type of mentoring you received at your current organization by selecting the appropriate number listed. IF YOU SELECT NON-MENTORING IN QUESTION 1, PLEASE PROCEED TO THE NEXT SECTION C			
Item	Informal Mentoring (1)	Formal Mentoring (2)	Non-Mentoring (3)
11. As a protégé I was/ am involved with			
Item	Career-related support (1)	Psychosocial support Role modelling Training Continuous	

		(2)	(3)	(4)	organizational learning (5)
12. What was/is the most important help given to you by your mentor					
For the next three items, please rate how high or low you receive CAREER-RELATED SUPPORT from your mentor based on the following indices on a six likert scale from Very High (VH)- Very Low (VL)					
Items	Very High (VH),	High (H),	Moderately High (MH)	Moderately Low (ML)	Low (L) Very Low (VL)
13. Mentee's career progression					
14. Co-ordination of professional goals					
15. Aids achievements of career aspirations					
For the next three items, please rate how high or low you receive PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT from your mentor based on the following indices on a six likert scale from Very High (VH)- Very Low (VL)					
Item	Very High (VH),	High (H),	Moderately High (MH)	Moderately Low (ML)	Low (L) Very

					Low (VL)
16. Sharing of personal problems					
17. Receives counselling					
18. Friendly and maintains strict confidentiality					
For the next three items, how would you rate the following in relation to ROLE MODELLING based on the following indices on a six likert scale from Very High (VH)- Very Low (VL)					
Item	Very High (VH),	High (H),	Moderately High (MH)	Moderately Low (ML)	
					Low (L) Very Low (VL)
19. Imitation of mentor					
20. Leadership impartation					
21. Behavioural appropriateness of mentor					
For the next three items, how would you rate the following in relation to PEDAGOGY (TRAINING) based on the following indices on a six likert scale from Very High (VH)- Very Low (VL)					
Item	Very High (VH)	High (H)	Moderately High (MH)	Moderately Low (ML)	Low Very Low

					(L) (VL)
22.Provision of good working knowledge of job assignment					
23.Teaching of requisite skills					
24.Demonstration of integration of organisational strategy with role alignment					
For the next three items, how would you rate the following in relation to CONTINUOUS ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING based on the following indices on a six likert scale from Very High (VH)- Very Low (VL)					
Item	Very High (VH)	High (H)	Moderately High (MH)	Moderately Low (ML)	Low Very Low

					(L) (VL)
25. Talent management					
26. Growth in knowledge about grant writing					
27. Novel idea development					
28. Learning aligns with personal goal achievement like receiving grants.					
For the next two items please indicate your level of agreement with each statement by selecting the appropriate number listed.					
Items	Strongly Agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Partially Agree (PA)	Disagree (D)	Partially Disagree (PD) Strongly Disagree (SD)
29. The formal mentoring I receive (d) is/was effective.					

30. The informal mentoring I receive (d) is/was effective.																																		
<p>Please indicate the gender of your mentor by selecting the appropriate number listed.</p> <table border="1"> <tr> <th>Item</th> <th>Male (1)</th> <th>Female (2)</th> </tr> <tr> <td>31. The gender of my mentor is</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table> <p>Please indicate if your mentor is older than you, younger than you or similar in age by selecting the appropriate number listed.</p> <table border="1"> <tr> <th>Item</th> <th>Older (1)</th> <th>Younger (2)</th> <th>Similar in age (3)</th> </tr> <tr> <td>32. My mentor is</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table> <p>Please indicate the frequency you and your mentor meet during a month by selecting the appropriate number listed.</p> <table border="1"> <tr> <th>Item</th> <th>Once a month (1)</th> <th>Twice a month (2)</th> <th>Three times a month (3)</th> <th>More than three times a month (4)</th> </tr> <tr> <td>33. My mentor and I meet</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>						Item	Male (1)	Female (2)	31. The gender of my mentor is			Item	Older (1)	Younger (2)	Similar in age (3)	32. My mentor is				Item	Once a month (1)	Twice a month (2)	Three times a month (3)	More than three times a month (4)	33. My mentor and I meet									
Item	Male (1)	Female (2)																																
31. The gender of my mentor is																																		
Item	Older (1)	Younger (2)	Similar in age (3)																															
32. My mentor is																																		
Item	Once a month (1)	Twice a month (2)	Three times a month (3)	More than three times a month (4)																														
33. My mentor and I meet																																		

Section C: Employee Commitment

How would you rate the following in relation to your *Employee Commitment* towards your organization based on the following indices on a six likert scale from Very High (VH) - Very Low (VL)

Items	Very High (VH),	High (H),	Moderately High (MH)	Moderately Low (ML)	Low (L) Very	Very Low (VL),
Affective commitment						
34. Exertion of efforts beyond expectations						
35. Publicizing your organization						
36. Loyalty towards organization						
37. Acceptance of job assignments						
38. Alignment of personal values with organizational values						
39. Sense of pride about organization						
40. Possibility of working elsewhere						
41. Organizational-led performance						
Continuance commitment						
42. Likelihood of leaving						
43. Happiness about choice of job						
44. Benefits from staying in this organisation						
45. Reputation of organisation						
Normative commitment						
46. Fear of quitting						
47. Negative consequences of leaving the organisation						
48. Sense of obligation to remain						

APPENDIX 2

Mentoring Interview Proforma

Preliminary Information for Interviewer

- Explain to interviewee that this information is confidential and all responses will remain anonymous.
- Tell candidate to relax and respond as honestly as possible to the questions.
- Maintain as much eye contact as possible with the interviewee. Smile often. Use non-verbals (e.g., nodding) to encourage and draw-out responses from the interviewee.
- Thank interviewee at beginning and end of interview.

Part I: Background Information

(Note to interviewer: If candidate hesitates before answering these questions, simply explain that these are for record-keeping purposes only and will not be used to identify responses. If further resistance is encountered, skip those items that are considered offensive.)

- Gender:
- What is your age?
- What is your ethnic background? Igbo, Hausa, Yoruba, Other (please specify:_____)
- What is the highest level of education you have obtained? (Interviewer: Circle one) BSc , Masters, PhD
- What is your current job title?
- How long have you worked in this job? Years:_____ Months:_____
- How long have you worked for this organization? Years:_____ Months:_____

Part II: Experience as a Protégé

(Note to interviewer: Please recite the following before proceeding with this section. If interviewee has not been a protégé, then skip this section)

"Before we talk about your role as a mentor, I'd like to gather some of your experiences as a protégé. Therefore, the next few questions will focus on your experience as a protégé."

- During your career, has there ever been an individual who has taken a personal interest in you and who has guided, sponsored, or otherwise had a positive and significant influence on your professional career development? In other words, have you ever had a mentor? How many have you had?
- Was it formal or informal mentoring?
- Was it career-related or psychosocial support or both?
- Let's focus on your most recent mentor for a moment. Using a 6-point scale, with 0 meaning "None" and 5 meaning "Extraordinary Degree of Influence", indicate the amount of positive influence or benefit that the mentor had on your professional development and organizational commitment. Why do you say this?
- What were some of the benefits of being mentored by this individual?
- Were there any disadvantages to being involved in this relationship?
- Did your experience as a protégé influence your decision to become a mentor? How?
- Did your experience as a protégé help you prepare for the role of mentor? How?

Part III: Experience as a Mentor

(Note to interviewer: Please recite the following before proceeding with this section)

"Now I'd like to ask several questions that focus on your experience as a mentor."

- How many protégés have you mentored?
(Note to interviewer: Ask for the duration of the relationship for each of the protégés mentioned)
- Please describe the reasons why you have served as a mentor to others.
(Note to interviewer: Probe for motivational factors; for example, wanting to pass on knowledge to others, wanting to leave legacy in organization, wanting to increase your visibility, wanting to help others, etc.)
- Of the reasons you just listed, please rank order the five most important.
(Note to interviewer: Simply place the number by the reason outlined above.)
- What did you do to prepare yourself for serving as a mentor?
(Note to interviewer: Give examples, such as organizational training programs, workshops, advice, experience as a protégé, etc.)
- What do you perceive are the advantages to serving as a mentor? That is, what do you believe mentors stand to gain by mentoring others?
- What benefits did you personally realize as a result of serving as a mentor?
(Note to interviewer: Follow-up with specific examples, such as help in doing your job, gaining of information, gaining of loyalty, gaining of prestige, promotions, satisfaction with seeing someone progress).
- What do you perceive are the disadvantages to serving as a mentor? That is, what do you believe mentors stand to lose by mentoring others?
- What negative consequences did you personally realize as a result of serving as a mentor?
(Note to interviewer: Follow-up with specific examples, such as damage to your reputation, hindering of your work, demotion)
- What are some of the organizational factors that serve to facilitate your ability to mentor others?
- What are some of the organizational factors that inhibit or constrain your ability to mentor others?
- What characteristics do you think the ideal mentor should possess?

Part IV: The Protégé

(Note to interviewer: Please recite the following before proceeding with this section)

"Now I'd like to ask several questions that focus on your perceptions of the protégé."

- Think about the mentoring relationships you have had with your protégés. In general, describe how this relationship was initiated. Who first approached who? Did you perceive that the protégé needed help?
Note to interviewer: If the mentor has mentored multiple protégés, ask for differences or similarities between the situations)
- What factors attracted you to the individual that you mentored?
- What characteristics do you think make-up the ideal protégé?
- Would you consider mentoring a junior employee who had low performance/who was struggling? Why or why not?

Part V: The Mentoring Relationship

(Note to interviewer: Please recite the following before proceeding with this section)

"Now I'd like to ask several questions that focus on your general perceptions of relationships in which you have served as a mentor."

- Think about your most successful mentoring relationship. What were the factors that made it such a success?

- How did this successful mentoring relationship end?
- Have you been involved in any mentoring relationships that were not successful? If yes, please indicate why you think the relationship was not successful. What were the factors that made it unsuccessful?
- How did this unsuccessful mentoring relationship end?
- Do you still keep in touch with your former protégé(s)? If yes, what is the nature of your current relationship?
- What do you think both mentors and protégés can do to make the most out of a mentoring relationship?

Part V: Mentoring and organisational commitment

- Please describe how your mentoring relationship has increased your commitment. Please provide as many specific examples as possible of things your mentor did, qualities of your mentor, ways you interacted, or key situations that made the relationship not work well for you."
- Does the gender of your mentor influence the mentoring received and thus your level of employee commitment
- What would make mentoring effective in organizations?
- If formal mentoring was effective, would it increase your commitment?





GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH: A
ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT
Volume 19 Issue 4 Version 1.0 Year 2019
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-4588 & Print ISSN: 0975-5853

How Artificial Intelligence Can Help Project Managers

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Abstract- In this research work, it has been analysed that how artificial intelligence can help the project managers to manage the work. AI research is basically defined as the research that is done on different intelligence agents. It is a device that helps in perceiving the environment and helps in taking such actions that increases the chance to attain the goals. The artificial intelligence is now used within different fields. One of its finest applications is in the field of project management. Project Management AI is basically a system that can administer different projects without many resources. It does not require more input or cost. Through using the power of artificial intelligence, the tasks can be done automatically. AI also helps in making decisions associated with the projects and it helps in identifying the skills and capabilities of team members involved within a project. Project Management AI helps in fostering a safer environment. It also helps in delivering untiring vigilance and objectivity. Moreover, Project Management AI is used for the development of an eco-system for managing the knowledge. Artificial intelligence provides assistance to project managers in many ways.

Keywords: *project managers, artificial intelligence, ecosystem, foster.*

GJMBR-A Classification: *JEL Code: M10*



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Abstract- In this research work, it has been analysed that how artificial intelligence can help the project managers to manage the work. AI research is basically defined as the research that is done on different intelligence agents. It is a device that helps in perceiving the environment and helps in taking such actions that increases the chance to attain the goals. The artificial intelligence is now used within different fields. One of its finest applications is in the field of project management. Project Management AI is basically a system that can administer different projects without many resources. It does not require more input or cost. Through using the power of artificial intelligence, the tasks can be done automatically. AI also helps in making decisions associated with the projects and it helps in identifying the skills and capabilities of team members involved within a project. Project Management AI helps in fostering a safer environment. It also helps in delivering untiring vigilance and objectivity. Moreover, Project Management AI is used for the development of an eco-system for managing the knowledge. Artificial intelligence provides assistance to project managers in many ways. It provides number of tools such as Chatbots, Stratejos, ZiveBox, Rescoper, ClickUp, Clarizen and PolyOne. All of these tools prove to be helpful for the project managers to handle different tasks like through providing assistance to managers to make up the team and to assign the projects to particular team members. These tools also provide assistance to project managers to manage the deadlines in an effective way. The use of Artificial intelligence provides number of benefits to the project managers. The very important benefit is the support, as the pressure and burden over the project manager gets decremented by making the use of machines. Moreover, use of AI also provides more accurate results to the project managers. The tasks that are done using AI tend to be free of errors and mistakes. Along with it, the AI also provides project managers with the insights and strategies. For instance, it alerts the project managers to take some additional or alternative steps for handling the complicated projects. AI does not only assist the project managers to handle the tasks, but it also increases the productivity of project managers at individual level. AI helps the project managers to eliminate information bias. It increases the productivity of project managers by making them more creative and to have more emotional intelligence.

Keywords: project managers, artificial intelligence, ecosystem, foster.

1. INTRODUCTION

Computing technology tends to make the life easier for all of the individuals, it also adds up more convenience to all types of processes that

else may need human effort and time. Through artificial intelligence (AI) that involves the capabilities of decision-making and machine learning generally ascribed to humans, this is particularly the next step of evolution and underway (a Collaborative et al., 2018). The use of AI has been made to change the mundane and repetitive tasks, particularly in different assembly line processes. The development of AI has been done for different objectives like for management of cybersecurity concerns, diagnosis of medical conditions and in order to track the wildlife. However, the major counterpoint to the revolution of AI is the fear that one day AI can even surpass the contributions of humans within the workforce. It can even take such jobs that the individuals perform. AI will surely take over most of the time-taking tasks; this will allow the workers to get free and to do some other important tasks that cannot be managed by computers. When it comes to project management and artificial management, more of the advancements have been made and still much other advancement is on the way. Now AI is getting entered into the community of practice of project management and individuals tend to have more interest in the given topic. AI is used within different fields; the major field is the field of project management. There are number of ways in which AI helps project managers (Chou et al., 2015). The common description of AI is basically intelligence that the machines show. From the perspective of project management, the machine can actually copy the cognitive functions linked with the project manager's minds like problem solving and decision making. The AI principles are being used in search engines and speech recognition system like Siri and Google Search. Self-driven cars make the use of concepts of AI as do the simulation exercises of military and networks of content delivery. Now the computers can defeat most of the individuals in strategic games like chess. The overall objective of AI is to develop such machinery and computers that can work in the best possible way. This needs the usage of optimization strategies, computational intelligence and statistical methods. According to Bond and Gasser (2014), the programming for such strategies of AI does not only need the interpretation of technology but it also involves the interpretation of neuroscience, linguistics and psychology. The question related to the AI's usage is whether project manager's mind can be defined precisely so that its simulation can be done with the help

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of the techniques as given above. This can be accomplished in some time and there is more hope due to the use of faster computers, enhancement in technology of machine learning and use of cloud computing. In the given research, it will be analyzed that how AI helps project managers. It is important to analyze this particular topic because of the reason that now it is an age of advancement, now more of the developments have been done in the field of project management. As the project managers perform very important tasks, therefore the tasks of project managers should be done in an efficient way. Within the technological era, some techniques have been designed that can help the project managers (Ziuziaoski et al., 2014). Therefore, in this research, the attempt has been made to analyse the assistance provided to project managers by AI. In the given research, there are six sections. In the first section it has been analysed that what basically project management AI is. It has been analysed through identifying that how Artificial intelligence provides assistance in the field of project management. In Section II, a general observation has been made that how AI helps the project managers. In Section III, different tools have been analysed that can provide assistance to project managers. In Section IV, it has been identified that what are the associated benefits of using the tools for project management. In Section V, the outcomes of the assistance have been analysed like how the help of AI can increase the productivity of project managers. In Section VI, some of the risks associated with the use of AI in project management have been analysed.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Project Management AI

Project management AI is basically an integrated system that can do the administration of projects without needing the input. Through the artificial intelligence power, the tasks cannot be automated, but will infer different insights for making the recommendations to process, to make decisions related to project and to unveil the insights of team (Cappelli et al., 2018). For instance, there will be technology or there will be a particular technology in the future that will have the capability for matching the right kind of resource to the appropriate role. HR managers are making more investment in the technology for making improvement in the processes of hiring. Organisations that have used AI for the purpose of recruitment have seen increment in performance by around 20 percent (Chou et al., 2015). Improvement in revenues has been seen to get incremented by around 4 percent, and this rate of turnover has got decremented by around 35 percent (Cappelli et al., 2018). All of this automatically decreases the idle time of individuals. Now the project managers are not required to make more efforts. Through AI, now

project managers can learn the cadence of output of team members and can even do the assignment of regular work dependent on the ability of individuals. It can also help in creating an ecosystem for the management of knowledge. When an employee leaves the organisation, the one takes discrete figure of non-transferable interpretation of role. According to Conforto et al. (2016), the AI for project management can be used for aggregating the workplace behavioral patterns and it also does the centralization of knowledge of worker for making improvement in the quality and consistency.

a) Create an Ecosystem for Knowledge-Management

The project management AI can also be used for aggregating different workplace behavioral patterns and it is used for centralizing the knowledge of worker to make improvement in quality and consistency (Cappelli et al., 2018). It also helps in making prevention from reinventing something, when some changes are seen. However, this function is still more theoretical, but it will become affordable and available to the businesses present at enterprise-level in the coming year.

b) Foster a Safe Environment

For projects that own different conditions of working, AI can do the detection of invisible warning signs that affect the likelihood of accident while doing projects. For instance, a construction project management Artificial Intelligence could see the performance of equipment, unsafe environment at work, can employee different facial expressions for predicting performance, quality of air and can alert the parties for preventing some accidents (Costantino et al., 2015).

c) Deliver Untiring Objectivity and Vigilance

While project managers can cause more fatigue when identifying the deliverable for quality and accuracy, the systems of AI does not get tired and it does not make any excuses or compromises as it get burned out over the project. However, there is no such system that does the integration of all of such features. However, project managers will mainly encounter the job-altering AI advantages of project management (Charniak et al., 2014). There are not large numbers of tools of project management associated with Artificial intelligence; it is an industry that has been seen as slower to get into the umbrella of artificial intelligence and machine learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

The research methods that have been used for conducting this study have been described here. The major rationale behind choosing the particular methods of research is given in this chapter. Along with it, this chapter also gives detailed description of methods of research that have been used therefore this research can be replicated in an effective manner.

a) *Research Methods*

There are two kinds of research methods. These two kinds of research methods are termed as qualitative research and quantitative research method. In quantitative method of research, numerical data is used for doing mathematical analysis. On the other hand, qualitative method of research includes expressions, words and opinions. The qualitative method of research has been used in the current research for analysing that how AI helps project managers. According to Mackey and Gass (2015), the qualitative research methods are used for doing exploratory research. The major reason behind making the use of qualitative method of research is that through using such method, the interpretation of motivations, opinions and reasons become possible. It assists in solving the problem and also assists to develop the hypotheses or ideas for quantitative study. It is seen more involved for detailed interpretation of issue of research with other significant trends in ideas and perspectives. The research has used this particular method, as it assisted in capturing expressive information like values, motivation, underlying conducts, feelings and beliefs that were not possible through using quantitative methods of research.

b) *Data Collection- Secondary*

The data that does not own any prior collection and is utilized for the first time is termed as the primary data. However, data that some other investigator or researcher has already collected is termed as secondary data. Secondary data collection method has been chosen for the current research. According to Silverman (2016), the most common data collection method is secondary method of data collection. It involves such data that is collected already through others. According to Silverman (2016), secondary data collection methods are used in order to do the research with lower costs. For this research primary data has not been used as it is very expensive as every team member or researcher is then required to start the research from the scratch, choosing the participants, doing search and getting materials (Ledford and Gast, 2018). Therefore, because of this, secondary data collection method has been used in order to analyse that how AI helps project managers.

c) *Sources of Secondary Data*

There are different resources present to access the data required for literature review. However, the current research is dependent over peer view journals and other books.

i. *Journal articles*

The collection of opinions, ideas and thoughts done by different authors in order to analyse the issues of research is termed as journal articles. Journal articles help in increasing knowledge related to the given topic.

Journal articles also increase the knowledge related to different ideas of various authors (Ledford and Gast, 2018). Therefore, for this research, journal articles have been used.

ii. *Books*

Through books, deep thinking and active reading is promoted. Books give more knowledge that assist individuals in doing analysis (Silverman, 2016). Therefore, for the given research, different books have been read and referred.

iii. *Research procedure*

According to Makar et al. (2015), this research initiates with the planning of review that has been done for collecting secondary data. In the planning stage, dependent on objective, the review protocol has been developed where decision is made that how data collection should be done. Different research papers have been used too.

IV. ANALYSIS

Tools Provided by AI to Project Managers

There are different tools that are provided by Artificial Intelligence, project managers can use these tools for getting more assistance.

a) *Chatbots*

The most prominent work that has been done in the field of artificial intelligence is Chatbots (Danyasz et al., 2018). For instance, Redbooth and Cisco Spark made the team with Api.ai platform for creating a bot of messaging that helped in asking team members different things like 'What is urgent?', 'Show that what the team is working on?' and 'What is happening at this day?'.

b) *Strategies*

There is another tool that project managers can use for assistance like Strategies. Strategies gives a same function to development team of Agile software as integration of Slack. These similar types of Siri-like tools can become even more prevalent in the coming years.

c) *Zivebox*

There are some heavier software platforms for project management with the functionality of AI as the backend of systems. There is a digital workforce tool termed as ZiveBox, this tool owns more of the features related to project management, ZiveBox makes the use of AI for determining that in what time period the task will be completed. It also helps in analysing the productivity of every member of team and it helps in sorting through the communication databases at enterprise-level (Flick, 2015).

d) *Rescoper*

There is another tool named as Rescoper. The given platform assists in handling the tedious management parts so that the team stays more targeted

over the outcomes. The given platform tells that what the AI-based software should do. The project management software changes the point of view of users so that it gets tailored for the particular settings of permissions (Kyriklidi and Dounias, 2016). It helps in scheduling the tasks dependent on duration of tasks and workload. It also gives alerts for if the system thinks that the project will run into some trouble or if it will be handled within the given budget.

e) *Clickup*

There is another tool ClickUp. This is basically a Project Management tool that has just come to the market. This tool is mainly one-of-type in the software industry and is mainly used in project management. In accordance with Glesne (2015), the algorithms used in ClickUp help in predicting the best member of team for some particular task and helps in assigning the tasks then. It helps in tagging users in comments dependent on the contexts that are more relevant. It also helps in visualizing updates and notifications. It also helps in predicting such deadlines that cannot be met. It also helps in making correct time estimates of specific tasks. As ClickUp has actually leaded the charge, now more of the software for project management is sure to get rise with robust functionality of AI.

f) *Polydone*

There is another tool Polydone, this tool is already seen as more effective. According to Ferreira et al. (2015), in the coming future, some extra machine learning and AI features will be added to this particular tool. The objective will be the automation of budget and time in an accurate manner.

g) *Clarizen*

AI owns the power for giving improved and new tools that can provide more advantages to the organisations in different manners and the project managers won't even have to wait in such cases. Through different products such as cloud-based management software project of Clarizen, the processes of business can be automated. The tracking and sharing of the data can be done. Moreover, the information can be accessed for making different decisions in customized workflows and even in real workplace for suiting the requirements (Glukhov et al., 2015). When it comes to the concept of project management and AI, the only thing is 'gain'.

V. FINDINGS

Assistance to Project Managers

There are some of the AI applications that can help project managers in the coming future. The development in some of the competing constraints and usage of traditional constraints will make the analysis of tradeoff more complicated. The use of concepts of AI will make the project managers life way easier than ever

before. It was used to be taken for granted that constraints and assumptions provided to the individuals at project's onset remains more intact in the entire project life-cycle (Kłosowski and Gola, 2016). Today, it is known that this is not true and the tracking of all constraints and assumptions can be done in the entire life-cycle. AI provides assistance in this particular area. Executives particularly don't know that when the ones can intervene within a project. Today, most of the organizations make use of crises dashboards. Through looking at the crisis dashboards over the computers, the Executives can just see the projects that are facing different problems and that which of the metrics is not in the acceptable range and the ones can even identify the degree to which the project is critical. The practices of AI can tell about some immediate actions that the project managers should take and at what time (Kerzner, 2018). It results into decreasing the response time to some of the conditions that are out-of-tolerance level. Management basically does not identify that how much more work can be done or should be in the queue to be done without making an overburden over labor force. The addition of projects is basically done within queue with less regard for the required technology, skill level of the required forces and availability of resources. Practices of AI could permit the development of projects' portfolio that owns the best chance for increasing the value of business that an organization can get while identifying the effective practices for resource management. However, there are still some of the software algorithms for this; the optimization practices for project scheduling are still identified as the manual activity using error and trial strategies.

According to Kerzner (2018), effective practices of AI can make the optimization of schedules even more effective through identifying all of the future and current projects going on in the organisation rather than just considering some particular projects. More often, more pressure is made over the project managers for making rapid decisions dependent on the intuition rather than through step-by-step deduction utilized by computer. Nothing is generally just false or true, as the assumptions should be made. Basically, with more availability of information, lesser number of assumptions is made. Through sufficient database related to the particular information, the tools of AI can perform problem solving and reasoning dependent on the partial or incomplete information. Through the use of AI, future can be seen and it can also give the options that can increase the decision's value. When more information is given to tools of Artificial Intelligence, then the outcome value becomes greater (Makar et al., 2015). That is why, the initial point should be the consolidation of intellectual property of project management and the tools of AI should get the information access.

VI. ADVANTAGES OF THE TOOLS PROVIDED TO PROJECT MANAGERS BY AI

a) Support

The use of AI is made for the automation purposes by project managers for setting alerts and for managing the flow of work and to handle some repeatable procedures. The AI future includes the provision of support to the workforce through tackling some of the complicated approaches of workflows of project for spotting wasted time and for the evaluation of performance. According to Schwarz and Sánchez (2015), it also allows the quantification of results and it helps in doing analysis in an easier way. This information assists project managers in decision making processes that results into making more improvements in the future projects.

b) Accuracy

The entry of data is identified as notoriously patchy when it comes to the concept of project management. While some of the employees give minute details related to the time and tasks, others are identified as relatively less diligent. Artificial intelligence can be used in order to give more assistance dependent on the given data and it makes the users enough able to give more precise data (Ledford and Gast, 2018). This accuracy can assist the project managers to make avoidance from some of the costly setbacks.

c) Insight and Strategy

Computer technology has been seen more dependent over the automation and crunching and other repetitive tasks, but when referring to the idea of project management and artificial intelligence, individuals are seen balking to allow the machinery for taking over some of the complicated tasks. The project managers now get alerts when the due dates come closer, and it also permit the project managers to make up a team for the particular projects or to determine the tasks that can be assigned to the employees at daily basis (Vanhoucke et al., 2016). This is mainly identified as the course set for AI. These abilities of software and machine are seen to collate the data for the purpose of anticipation. There are different programs that are present in order to test different prototypes. Through the use of AI, the developers of software can run different tests over prototypes before the actual release of the prototypes. It can even help the project managers to decrease the total number of errors and to fines the experience of user prior to any launch.

VII. INCREASED PRODUCTIVITY OF PROJECT MANAGERS

AI helps project managers to become more productive than what they actually are.

a) Eliminate Information Bias

Humans tend to be more emotional, and individuals let the personal biases and feelings to affect the decision even when the ones refer to numbers. Artificial Intelligence does own opinions. The results that are acquired by making the use of AI tend to be more accurate without human error or personal biasness.

b) Use Emotional Intelligence

Project managers often bogged down because of numbers and often ignore the management at human-side. Managers are required to manage and to leave the number-crunching for Artificial Intelligence, which can be sorted with the help of large amount of data. It helps in finding patterns better and faster as compared to humans. For instance, Watson of IBM can read around 22 million of text pages within 3 seconds (Wu et al., 2014). Now the focus can be regained over the human approaches of PM, such as the identification of appropriate and right kind of staffers for particular project. It helps in identifying tasks for each and every project and helps to monitor the actual progress. The numbers affect such decisions. However, some of the subjective considerations such as interpersonal links among different members of a team are identified as being more significant (Vanhoucke et al., 2016). A project can look good in terms of finance; however it tends to be disaster when it gets stacked with such individuals who cannot do working with one another in an effective way. The most important thing is the emotional intelligence. AI provides the freedom for redirecting the energy and time required for the given significant considerations.

c) Be Creative

It should be identified that how and where Artificial Intelligence can assist the business and where the one needs to get in as an innovative manager of project. Artificial Intelligence is greater at making prediction of future outcome and trends when there is more data to work with. However, such predictions do not prove to be helpful when it can be used a little. For instance, identification of monthly profitability can be more accurate (Willems and Vanhoucke, 2015). This is the point where the project managers get the opportunity. Project managers use the resources for planning the future, which may even include more creativity. Through AI, individuals get the assistance which they need without the expense to hire full-time employee. This human-centric solutions result into underscoring the significant role of project managers.

The personal computers' ubiquity within the organisation has made the job of every individual easier and quicker. Instead of report writing over notepad and final copy typing over typewriter; now everything is done over Word or Google Drive (Walker, 2016). The similar is true for project management and AI. AI is such tool that

helps in the management of project and helps in doing it more effectively and efficiently.

VIII. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEAR

The major limitation of this research is that it has not identified some of the risks that are associated with the research topic. It can be stated that AI provides more assistance to project manager, but on the same side, it also owns some major risks for project managers. Now-a-days the machines have transformed into more agile objects and are seen enough able to get adapted in the real time without even getting programmed particularly for some work (Wenger, 2014). According to Ziuziaoski et al. (2014), the machines have now been trained to deliver faster results, to do the analysis of larger sets of data and to provide accurate answers when compared with human beings. The outcome is that the good paying jobs of project management are getting replaced with the machines. Project managers most often do report that failures are seen within the projects because of breakdown of communication, therefore there seems the need to have some systems that can communicate with one another in an effective way through the use of AI. This can then be communicated further to the users [16]. Despite of large number of benefits, there also exists fear related to the use of AI within the organisation. The associated risks of use of AI for project managers have been discussed in this research. In the future research, the risks associated with the use of AI for project managers will be discussed in detail.

IX. CONCLUSION

In the end, it can be concluded that now this is the era of technological advancements. More of the technological advancements have been made within every field that has changed the lives of individuals. Now-a-days, the big data and data science are very common terms. Both of these involve the use of AI, so basically AI provides the backend. Artificial intelligence is basically a device that helps to make some perception related to the environment and it assists in taking such actions that can lead to the attainment of actual goals. The artificial intelligence is now used within various fields. Its applications are not confined to only one particular field. However, within the field of project management, there is broader use of AI. The Project management AI is basically a system that helps in doing the administration of different projects. It helps to handle various projects and through using the available resources. Project management AI helps in fostering a safer environment. Along with it, the use of project management AI is done for developing an eco-system that basically helps in doing the management of knowledge. AI provides greater assistance to project managers in different ways. It helps in doing different

tasks using different tools. There are different tools available for the project managers like Chatbots, Strategjos, ZiveBox, Rescoper, ClickUp, Clarizen and Polydone. Chatbots help in identifying urgent tasks and the tasks that needs to be done currently and such other things. Straegios helps in developing agile models. Zivebox helps in identifying that in what particular time period, the task will get completed. The tool Rescoper helps the project managers to handle the tedious management parts. It also gives system alerts to the project managers and identify for if the project will be done within the given deadline or not. Clickup tool helps in predicting the total number of team members appropriate for the given project. Polyden tool helps in managing the time and budget of projects. The tool Clarizen allows easier sharing and tracking of data. The project managers have got more support, accuracy, insight and strategy by making the use of AI for projects. Moreover, it has also increased the productivity of project managers at individual levels. As the AI tools have assisted the project managers to become more emotionally intelligence, creative and to eliminate information bias. However, there are also some of the risks associated with it, as because of the incremented use of AI within the field of project management, there will be a time where there will be no need of project managers and machines will replace it. In the future research, these risks will be analysed.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH: A
ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT
Volume 19 Issue 4 Version 1.0 Year 2019
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-4588 & Print ISSN: 0975-5853

Organizational Culture, Government Regulations and Corporate Competitiveness of Merged Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria

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Abstract- The Nigerian banking sector is germane to the growth of the nation's economy and several reforms over the years have orchestrated merger and acquisition. The marriage of convenience occasioned by the banking consolidation exercise of 2005 by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) led to dilution of ownership and fusing together banks with different goals, objectives and ideology. These have led to rebranding, cultural disharmony, and uncompetitive behaviours which were considered not suitable for the new direction. Cross-sectional research design was adopted and primary data collated. The research instrument was validated and reliability was carried out using the Cronbach alpha analysis. A sample size of four hundred and seventy three (473) was determined using Roasoft sample size calculator. The result revealed that organizational culture significantly affected the corporate competitiveness of the surveyed banks. The study variables organizational culture ($B = 0.929$, $R^2 = 0.619$, $p < 0.05$, $F(1,455) = 738.509$), government regulations ($B = 0.710$, $R^2 = 0.691$, $p < 0.05$, $F(1,454) = 106.413$).

Keywords: *organizational culture, government regulations, corporate competitiveness, merged money deposit banks, central bank of nigeria.*

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M10



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



Organizational Culture, Government Regulations and Corporate Competitiveness of Merged Deposit Money Banks in Nigeria

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Abstract- The Nigerian banking sector is germane to the growth of the nation's economy and several reforms over the years have orchestrated merger and acquisition. The marriage of convenience occasioned by the banking consolidation exercise of 2005 by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) led to dilution of ownership and fusing together banks with different goals, objectives and ideology. These have led to rebranding, cultural disharmony, and uncompetitive behaviours which were considered not suitable for the new direction. Cross-sectional research design was adopted and primary data collated. The research instrument was validated and reliability was carried out using the Cronbach alpha analysis. A sample size of four hundred and seventy three (473) was determined using Roasoft sample size calculator. The result revealed that organizational culture significantly affected the corporate competitiveness of the surveyed banks. The study variables organizational culture ($B = 0.929$, $R^2 = 0.619$, $p < 0.05$, $F_{(1,455)} = 738.509$), government regulations ($B = 0.710$, $R^2 = 0.691$, $p < 0.05$, $F_{(1,454)} = 106.413$). This study concludes that an organization's culture as influenced by government is vital in the discussion of corporate competitiveness of merged red organizations. The study recommends that the regulatory bodies should in future take into cognizance the cultural differences in bringing together banks with different ideology (culture) together.

Keywords: organizational culture, government regulations, corporate competitiveness, merged money deposit banks, central bank of nigeria.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Nigerian banking sector is germane to the growth of the nation's economy and reforms were implemented to strengthen its service delivery over the years. The outcomes of the reforms have led to marriage of convenience occasioned by the banking consolidation exercise of 2005 by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN). The reforms technically targeted dilution of ownership, recapitalization, consolidation through which and fusing together of banks with different goals, objectives and ideology occurred. The effect of the aforementioned was evident in corporate governance issues change of ownership internal operational crisis in the banking industry. The crises have led to rebranding and rightsizing of staff considered not suitable for the new direction.

The market place and the universal nature of the banks have narrowed the competitive stage to few products, market, and niches. The constant monetary changes by government have reduced return on equity to investors banks have also devised ways of selling the brand which is an attempt to differentiate and gain a better share of the market as well as staff loyalty. Available statistics appeared to indicate that most of the banks that merged during the consolidation exercise of 2005 have either been acquired or under the management of the Central Bank of Nigeria. Others that are still competitive have dropped from the position they were immediately after the merger to lower places when it comes to the ranking of banks in Nigeria. This situation has become more worrisome even though some of the consolidated banks were larger in terms of share capital and liability after the consolidation exercise. It is therefore important to know what has led to the inability of the merged banks to compete efficiently while the stand-alone banks have done well. Hence, the paper linked such banks' competitive to their varying organizational culture.

Organizational culture constitutes a set of beliefs/values and social anthropology have seen it as a framework for understanding behaviors, team orientation, innovativeness, quality of service (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Vacile & Nicolescu, 2016). The bundle of values (Schein, 1985) assist leadership in goal setting, expected behavior, correction, and rewards which motivate committed workers to a common set of core values, belief and assumptions (Chilla, Kibet, & Douglas, 2014; Denison, 1984). Thus, organizational culture consists of values (Schein, 1985), beliefs (Hofstede, 2002), and assumptions affecting thoughts and behavior of people in an organization (Hitka, Vetrakova, Balazova & Danihelova, 2015). The assumption from the foregoing scholars is that organizational culture influences the processes, outcomes and direction of individuals and organisations to enhance their significance and relevancy (Hafit, Asmuni, Idris & Wahat, 2015). Organisations with strong corporate culture are presumed to be more successful than those with weak corporate culture (Stacho, Stachová, 2013; Vacile & Nicolescu, 2016), this situation

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is more amplified by the Nigerian banking system mergers of 2005.

Banks' competitiveness emerges from different sources and several reasons could explain why some could achieve success and others failure. Some scholars (Hofstede 2002; & Porter, 2008 Schein, 1985) see this from misalignment of their organisational culture with the internal and external environmental factors as observed by Odiakaose (2018). The lapses associated with merged banks 'organisational culture in Nigeria include conflicting interest of organisational executives (Maseko, 2017; Vacile & Nicolescu, 2016) and weak integration in focus of the newly formed banks. This observation has led to managerial ineptness, liability of newness, poor commitment, unexpected internal strife and crisis, which in some cases have abruptly terminated existence due to insider abuses, poor quality services and weak supervisory structures (Flores, 2013).

The conventional frightening uncertainty that confront newly merged banks is organisational change which Kotter and Heskett (1992) demonstrate as instigator of fear, anxiety and discontent. This is evident in the number of inter and intra-organisation conflict that breeds team disorientation, weak integration, poor service delivery that create negative image for the banks (Kercini, 2013). Although, many merged banks in Nigeria have organisational culture, they do not possess organisational dynamic capabilities that organisational culture provides. The culture of such merged banks was created without infusing cultural capability that is needed to leap-frog during transition of merger. This does not enable employee's innovation, staff involvement, and openness to change, teamwork, morale, customer service and trust making such banks competitively not ready and unsustainable in Nigeria (Hafit, Asmuni, Idris & Wahat, 2015).

However, events has shown over time, that though the top three banks in terms of share capital after the mergers were (Union, Intercontinental and UBA), the reverse is the case as at December 2016 (Zenith, GTB and First bank) using the same indices. This cursory observation prompted the need to investigate how merged banks could achieve competitiveness through their organizational culture. The work is structured thus; introduction, literature review, methodology, presentation of findings, conclusion and recommendation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

a) Organisational Culture

Organizational culture consists of values, beliefs and standards affecting thoughts and behavior of people in an organization (Hitka, Vetrakova, Balazova & Danihelova, 2015). Park, Ribeire and Schulte (2004) defined organizational culture as the shared, basic assumptions that an organization learns while coping

with the environment and solving problems of external adaptation and internal integration that are taught to new members as the correct way to solve those problems. Organizational culture influences all the processes and outcomes related to individuals and the overall organization that enhances its significance (Hafit, Asmuni, Idris & Wahat, 2015). Organisations with good corporate culture are usually more successful than organisations with lack of corporate culture inasmuch employees appreciate the same values and standards of behavior (Stacho & Stachova, 2013).

b) Corporate Competitiveness

Competitiveness is a location's unit cost level, driving companies' ability to compete successfully on global markets (Ketels, 2016). In other words, competitiveness is a firm's capability to contest favorably among other competing firms and become successful in local and international markets. Further, Competitiveness is a location's productivity level, driving the standard of living the individuals in that location can sustain (Aiginger, 2015). Porter (1990) defines competitiveness as the ability of a given firm to successfully compete in a given business environment. Similarly, Lall (2001) defines firm competitiveness as the ability of a firm to do better than benchmark companies in terms of profitability, sales, or market share. Further, Buckley, Pass and Prescott (1988) consider competitiveness to be synonymous with a firm's long-run profit performance, its ability to compensate employees and generate superior returns for shareholders. In line with these definitions, this study will focus on the financial performance of a firm to measure its competitiveness. In general, the existence of good financial performance suggests that the firm is doing better in terms of competitiveness since profitable opportunities result in higher production and sales (Elif, 2016).

Corporate competitiveness can be defined as the ability of a firm to design, produce and market products greater than those offered by competitors (Ambastha & Momaya, 2004). Corporate competitiveness is described as the strength of an organization in comparison with its competitors (Carayannis & Campbell, 2012). Villanova, Zinkhan and Hyman(2000) describes corporate competitiveness as the capacity of an organization to innovate key internal and external relationship for reputation and strategic assets. For an organization to achieve corporate competitiveness, the organization/entrepreneur must be able to manage its internal firm factors, external environment and the influence of the entrepreneur/organization itself (Porter & Ketels, 2003).

c) Government Regulation

Government regulations on banks are known as financial regulations which are the laws that have been

put in place by the state to govern financial institutions (Agborndakaw, 2010). The Financial Times (n. d.) have a similar definition and describe regulations as laws that govern the activities of all financial institutions. Agborndakaw (2010) says that these regulations aim at maintaining orderly markets, licensing the providers of financial services, enforcing applicable laws as well as prosecuting cases of market misconduct, protecting clients and investors and promoting the stability of the financial system. These regulations are promulgated by government regulators as well as international groups.

A nation regulates the banking sector to stabilize the financial and to ensure monetary control, money supply and stability of prices, equal competition and pro-consumer competition in the market for financial services (Szpringer 2001). The literatures (Santos 2001; Matthews & Thompson 2007; Llewellyn 1999) mention two basic reasons underlying the introduction of banking regulations namely: the need to ensure that both particular financial institutions and the whole financial system are sound and safe and the need to protect customers (mainly depositors). The main issue within structural regulations is the provision of a so-called safety network to protect the banking system (or, generally speaking, the financial system) against crises or, should they materialize anyhow, to manage them and moderate their impacts, and to reduce systemic risk. However, the introduction of banking regulations brings on at least two types of distortions (Freixas & Rochet, 2007) the availability of a safety system may encourage bank managers to get involved in riskier operations and if some types of banking business are not regulated, the government may decide to introduce banking regulations for reasons other than the safety and soundness of the sector, e.g. some form of direct taxes (for instance obligatory reserve) or an obligation that banks subsidy some of their products.

Implementing financial regulations is a major challenge for many countries especially the EMEs but in the long run they contribute to the strengthening of banking systems (Sinha, Kumar & Dhal 2011). Some aspects of regulation can be oriented towards these countries achieving their development objectives without having to sacrifice prudent regulation and financial sector stability considerations. In other to find out if regulations influence the growth of commercial banks or not, Sinha et al. (2011) further state that there is a lack of unanimity among economists on how relevant finance is to the growth of an economy. Typically, one would expect regulations to improve efficiency and lower any risk of a financial crisis. Many critics have argued that regulations interfere with the efficiency of the market while those advocating for regulation like Sinha et al (2011), have argued that if regulations are well designed and managed then they can make markets more efficient and equitable in terms of their outcomes.

Mwega (2014) concluded that regulations in the financial sector have strengthened the banking sector over the last ten years, in terms of customer service, products offered, profitability and stability. Gudmundsson, Kisinguh & Odongo (2013) found that there is a positive relationship between capital regulation and the improved performance of banks and financial stability. The various studies show that there is a lack of clarity on what the true impact of regulations is. Therefore, the study hypothesized that: Government regulation has no significant moderating effects on the relationship between organisational culture components and corporate competitiveness of selected merged deposit money banks in Nigeria.

Empirical Review on Organisational Culture, Government Regulation and Corporate Competitiveness

In order to ascertain the relationship between regulation and the financial performance of commercial banks, Vianney (2013) and Barth, Caprio and Levine (2002) affirm that regulations have no impact on the financial performance of financial institutions. Furthermore, there is a negative association between restricting the activities of a bank and its performance and stability as compared to when banks could freely diversify into other financial activities. Contrary to this, studies have indicated that, regulations have led to an increase in profitability, there is a positive relationship supporting the evidence that capital regulation does improve the performance of banks and financial stability. The regulations lead to increase in the value of loans outstanding, total assets, profit and shareholders' equity of banks. Hence regulations do have a positive impact on the profitability of commercial banks. There is also a positive relationship between corporate governance, the stability and good performance of a bank (Mwega, 2014; Gudmundsson, Kisinguh & Odongo, 2013; Mureithi, 2012; Otieno, 2012).

Many research that relate organisational culture and company's competitive performance (CCP) have been conducted in developed countries. The results are mixed and inconclusive (i.e. positive, negative and no relationships) (Booth & Hamer, 2009; Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2016; Rose et al., 2008). According to (Rose et al., 2008), the strength of the relationship between organisational culture and CCP is different between cultures. The organisational culture in the developed countries is advanced and better than the ones in the developing countries. The scarcity of research that has been conducted in developing countries has motivated the researcher to look deeper into the relationship between organisational culture and CCP in developing countries. One of the previous works on the relationship between organisational culture and CCP was undertaken by Gordon and DiTomaso (1992) which showed that the strength of culture and its adaptability

but not stability is likely to predict the companies' performance in the short term. Further research by O'Connor (1995) showed that organisational culture plays an important role in deciding the adequacy of budget involvement in reducing role ambiguity. Subsequently, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) affirmed that the relationship between the four culture dimensions and performance is not consistent. Specifically, the competitive and innovative cultural traits were reflected in performance. The competitive and innovative cultures, which are critical to the external situations, have a positive effect on performance. This finding provides some support for the argument that the organisational culture is vital to sustainable competitive advantages. However, the culture should be flexible with the external predicaments.

Furthermore, the community and bureaucratic cultures are directly reflected with the companies' performance. The negative relationship between the bureaucratic culture and performance also suggests that bureaucratization decrease the short-term profitability and hinder the long-term growth, which effects the survival of the company. Meanwhile, trying to investigate how organisational culture became common, and how it influences real organisations, Sadri and Lees (2001) posit that effective culture should be appropriate with the employee values and be harmonious with the environment in which the company works. Additionally, the authors recommended that organisation must evaluate and classify their organisational culture in order to consider the effect of that culture in their employees' productivity and morale. Finally, they argued that organisations form their cultures to their benefits in enhancing their employees' experience at the workplace and enhance their own returns. Similarly, Flamholtz (2001) argued that there is a statistically important link between organisational culture corporate competitiveness. The author concluded that the organisational culture is important to the success of the management and the profitability in the company. Similarly, Ojo (2010) argued that the organisational culture plays a significant role in the companies' public performance. This is because the organisational culture positively influences the level of employee's commitment to the aims of the company.

III. METHODOLOGY

The paper adopted a quantitative approach with emphasis on using the descriptive survey design. This design was considered in order to investigate the relationships that exist among variables of the research. A sample size of four hundred and seventy three (473) was determined using Roasoft sample size calculator. The research instrument was adapted from existing studies with six-point scale that solicited responses from strongly agreed to strongly disagreed. The research

instrument was validated and reliability was carried out using the Cronbach alpha analysis. Data were collected after the reliability of the questionnaire established and out of the four hundred and seventy three (473) distributed, 458 copies were retrieved and judged usable. Data was analyzed by inferential statistics (regression analysis) using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

IV. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Four hundred and seventy three questionnaires were distributed to employees. Four hundred and fifty eight copies of questionnaire were retrieved indicating a ninety-six point eight response rate. Table 1 shows the demographic and descriptive distribution of respondents.

Table 1: Demographic and Descriptive Distribution of Respondents

Demographic and Personal Information		Population of Respondents	
Variable	Information	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	257	56.1
	Female	201	43.9
Age	Below 25 years	50	10.9
	25- 30 years	124	27.1
	31- 35 years	132	28.8
	36- 40 years	70	15.3
	41-45 years	66	14.4
	46-60 years	16	3.5
Educational Qualification	OND/NCE	55	12.0
	BSc/HND	246	53.7
	MSc/MBA	131	28.6
	OTHERS	26	5.7
Job Rank	Top Management	79	17.3
	Middle Management	285	62.2
	Lower Management	94	20.5
Length of Service	Below 5 Years	129	28.1
	6-15 Years	238	52.0
	16-25 Years	66	14.4
	26-35 Years	25	5.5

From Table 1, the paper revealed that majority of the respondents are male (56.1%), are between the ages of 31-35 years (28.8%), possess BSc/HND certificates (53.7%), were middle management employees (62.2%) and have spent between 6-15 years in the banks (52.0%).

The thrust of the paper was to establish the power of organizational culture on competitiveness and the moderating role of government regulations among merged banks. Table 2 illustrates the regression summary of the moderating effect of government regulations on the relationship between organizational culture and corporate competitiveness in the selected merged deposit money banks in Nigeria. The results in Table 3 and 4 show three stages of the analysis. The first stage is the direct effect of organizational culture and corporate competitiveness which showed a significant result ($p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.619$). The R^2 shows that about 61.9% of the variance in corporate competitiveness is as a result of changes in the organizational culture while the remaining 38.1% is as a result of other factors not captured in the model. Also the second stage is the direct effect of government regulation on corporate competitiveness which showed a significant result ($p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.691$) and also shows that about 69.1% of the variance in corporate competitiveness is as a result of changes in the government regulation.

However, the third stage which involved the interaction between government regulation and organizational culture on corporate competitiveness showed an insignificant result ($p > 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.692$). The R^2 after the interaction changed from 0.691 to 0.692 which showed a difference of 0.001 which is highly

insignificant. Therefore, government regulation does not significantly moderate the relationship between organizational culture and corporate competitiveness, instead organizational culture does affect competitiveness.

Table 2: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.787 ^a	0.619	0.618	0.56975	0.619	738.509	1	455	0.000
2	0.831 ^b	0.691	0.690	0.51338	0.072	106.413	1	454	0.000
3	0.832 ^c	0.692	0.690	0.51298	0.001	1.705	1	453	0.192

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Culture

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Culture, Government Regulation

c. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Culture, Government Regulation, OC_GREG

Table 3: Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	0.102	0.147		0.699	0.485
	Organisational Culture	0.927	0.034	0.787	27.176	0.000
2	(Constant)	-0.191	0.135		-1.413	0.158
	Organisational Culture	0.710	0.037	0.603	19.077	0.000
	GOVERNMENT REGULATION	0.284	0.027	0.326	10.316	0.000
3	(Constant)	0.113	0.269		0.420	0.675
	Organisational Culture	0.629	0.072	0.534	8.717	0.000
	GOVERNMENT REGULATION	0.195	0.073	0.224	2.662	0.008
	OC_GREG	0.023	0.017	0.155	1.306	0.192

a. Dependent Variable: Corporate Competitiveness

Source: SPSS results, 2019.

V. DISCUSSION

Having measured the moderating effect of government regulation on the relationship between organizational culture components and corporate competitiveness, the results of hypothesis seven test were in agreement with the findings of Poskiene (2006) note that the study of politics and public administration has for many years been intimately concerned with the question of what features are the most sensible and illuminating for comparing one state with another. They contend that typically the key features identified are structural, functional and cultural. The first two categories encompass how the apparatus of the state is organized, the nature of the political system and approaches to governance and accountability.

Some research works that relate organizational culture and company's competitive performance (CCP) have been conducted in developed countries. The results are mixed and inconclusive (i.e. positive, negative and no relationships) (Booth & Hamer, 2009; Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2016; Rose et al., 2008). According to Rose et al., (2008), that the strength of the relationship between organizational culture and CCP is different between cultures. The organizational culture in the developed countries is advance and is better than

the ones in the developing countries. The scarcity of research that has been conducted in developing countries has motivated the researcher to look deeper into the relationship between organizational culture and CCP in developing countries.

One of the previous works on the relationship between organizational culture and CCP was undertaken by Gordon and Ditomaso (2012) which showed that the strength of culture and its adaptability but not stability is likely to predict the companies' performance in the short term. Further research by O'Connor (1995) showed that organizational culture plays an important role in deciding the adequacy of budget involvement in reducing role ambiguity. Subsequently, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) affirmed that the relationship between the four culture dimensions and performance is not consistent. Specifically, the competitive and innovative cultural traits were immediately reflected in performance. The competitive and innovative cultures, which are critical to the external situations, have a positive effect on performance. This finding provides some support for the argument that the organizational culture is vital to sustainable competitive advantages. The culture should be flexible with the external predicaments.

However, the dominant administrative culture also represents a key distinguishing feature. They describe this as the expectations the staff of an organization have about what is normal and acceptable in that organization. The law is in the background rather than the foreground and civil servants are regarded as simply citizens who work for government organisations, not some special cadre with a higher mission to represent the 'state'. Of course in practice the administrative cultures of states evolve. Many states have shifted away from a highly legalistic form, but towards something other than a straightforward public interest model. The Netherlands, Finland and Sweden all fall into this third category.

The legal underpinnings of the administrative system are considerably less significant in each of these countries than they were in the past but the notion of state remains important a final point of consideration with regard to administrative cultures is perceptions with regard to reform. Pandit (2000) comment that 'a good deal of the rhetoric associated with public management reform vividly contrasts the new with the old. The name given to the old – that against which the modern, reformed public sector organization stands out as superior – is usually something like 'traditional bureaucracy'. Certainly, there has been a widespread trend across OECD countries for several decades to introduce management techniques associated with the private sector, widely referred to as 'new public management'.

However, as noted by Peter, Abeland Twesige (2000), 'concern has been raised that management techniques associated with new public management will conflict with the attitudes, values and culture within public sector organisations'. Pandit (2004) expand on this point when they comment that 'it is not that the negative features of the 'traditional model' are fantasies, with no basis in reality. However, it is a long and unjustified leap from there to the idea that governments are now able to move, without significant loss to a new, modern type of organization that avoids all of the problems of the past. They conclude that 'each country is different (though there are some groups and patterns) and within each public domain, individual sectors have distinctive organizational cultures of their own. The idea of a single, and now totally obsolete, ancient regime is as implausible as the suggestion that there is now a global recipe which will reliably deliver 'reinvented' governments.

In order to ascertain the relationship between regulation and the financial performance of commercial banks, Vianney (2013) and Barth, Caprio and Levine (2002) affirm that regulations have no impact on the financial performance of financial institutions. Furthermore, there is a negative association between restricting the activities of a bank and its performance

and stability as compared to when banks could freely diversify into other financial activities. Contrary to this, studies have indicated that, regulations have led to an increase in profitability, there is a positive relationship supporting the evidence that capital regulation does improve the performance of banks and financial stability. The regulations lead to increase in the value of loans outstanding, total assets, profit and shareholders' equity of banks. Hence, regulations do have a positive impact on the profitability of commercial banks. There is also a positive relationship between corporate governance and the stability and good performance of a bank (Mwega, 2014; Gudmundsson, Kisinguh & Odongo, 2013; Mureithi, 2012; Otieno, 2012).

VI. CONCLUSION

The paper concludes by showing that an organizations culture as influenced by government is a significant factor to be considered in corporate competitiveness of the organization especially during mergers as shown by the Nigerian banking sector. This study adds more to the knowledge and understanding on organizational culture and corporate competitiveness. Drawing from the resource based theory; this study provides explanation for the existence of firm specific assets and capabilities that are important to the preparation of firm strategy and with organizational change that comes with mergers in the banks to achieve competitive advantage and sustainability. The dynamic capability theory shows that the organizational processes by which resources are utilized to create growth and adaptation within changing environments and permit the renewal and reconfiguration of a firm's resources due to cultural change during mergers affects their competitiveness and growth. Also, positive or negative organizational culture during organisations merger can lead to sustainable competitive advantage if the resource base created is not imitated over a long period of time and the rent are sustained which thereby influences and organisations competitiveness. The theories have been used to explain specific areas of organizational culture and how they are indicators for corporate competitiveness.

The paper recommends that the CBN should in future take over ailing banks, manage them and sell to avoid bringing together banks with different ideology (culture). In some cases, the CBN should consider outright liquidation of some ailing banks as mergers only prolong the process of liquidation. In addition, in formulating policies, Government should ensure that they are in line with international practices to enable our banks to compete internationally. Corporate mergers though supposed to strengthen the banks fortunes and competitiveness if not well managed leads to weaknesses in the banks hence it is recommended that

strict ethics and guidelines be followed by banks during the freezing, change and unfreezing stages of the banks operations.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH: A
ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT
Volume 19 Issue 4 Version 1.0 Year 2019
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-4588 & Print ISSN: 0975-5853

Manpower Planning - Theoretical Perspectives of Utility Theory and Models

By Arindam Chatterjee & Dr. Sriparna Guha

Abstract- Manpower Planning is an obvious and extremely critical function of some inter-related, explicit, operational, and functional Factors of an organization's overall people resource attributes, methodology and strategic initiatives. In India, the employment, competence functions, manpower planning and execution decisions, models and implications of them at the micro and macro environments of the organizations have still some role to play. Manpower planning models have been evolved to cater situational necessities of the workforce and at the same time leaves the scope of in-depth review and analysis of their limitations and corrective aspects. The reflections of utility analysis and allied assessment of costbenefits also clarify the usage of alternative utility functions through systematic and logical approaches. The in-depth analysis and managerial perceptions on the analysis of outcomes have Significant roles in successful implementation of any manpower planning models in any given strategic corporate environment.

Keywords: *manpower planning, decision making, strategic HRM models, utility analysis, cost-benefit.*

GJMBR-A Classification: *JEL Code: M10*



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Manpower Planning - Theoretical Perspectives of Utility Theory and Models

Arindam Chatterjee ^α & Dr. Sriparna Guha ^σ

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I. INTRODUCTION

Workforce planning, by far, historically attributed in the realm of manpower statistics and research functions which reflects the importance of correct meaning of each grade under preferred recruitment and transition patterns. Industrial literature-based innovation witnesses in the last few decades an explicit and comprehensive attention as a potential area for incremental strategic application and provide feedback with an intention to build up appropriate Manpower Planning contexts, forecasts, analysis, models, decisions, outcomes, viability and related planned investment figures which are not to put the procedures on the balance sheet but to use the same for further decision making and revision purposes. Key questions in this context could be whether decisions successfully and effectively contribute to the key functional and operational organizational objectives? Whether we can justify the investments in different manpower development programs namely knowledge, training, staffing, enhanced employee benefits and employee involvements by their returns? As labor costs may, sometimes, exceeds half of total operating expenses (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1988), are the manpower assets being managed with the same

accountability, prudence, rationality, importance and care as the machines, plants, financial, softwares and marketing resources? These questions produce a strong base of further research on the feasibility of different manpower models prepared in a different context and different stages of industrial development on varied manpower needs.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- 1) The study has been performed to explore the literature available in this field of Utility analysis and the phases of its evolution with increasing facets of methodology, and outcome in theoretical perspectives by various researchers and Institutions at different levels.
- 2) The study further plunge into the impacts of utility analysis and corresponding efforts as a strategic tool of the management in order to find out the worthiness of different manpower planning measures for various cadre of manpower along with its investment arenas, variables and sources of information, authenticity of inputs and Cost-benefit analysis in terms of quantifiable outcomes at large. The study also tried to extend its scope in measuring the acceptability and awareness amongst the stakeholders of varied management levels.
- 3) The study also, tried to signify the reasons for rejection of the processes and the outcomes of the efforts made in respect of Human Capital Management, if any, for further improvements.
- 4) In another part of the study, we discuss the principles of few renowned Manpower Planning and Human Resource Models for reviewing the merits, and demerits and its overall implications concerning specific linkage with each other.
- 5) The study also tried to focus on deriving a common and unified model through alleviating the shortcomings and complexity of the dynamics of stakeholder's functions, as far as possible, as a platform for different types of Industries to follow.
- 6) The scope further extends to merge the applicability of 'Utility Analysis' and 'HRM Models' to get a resultant of future-oriented, optimal and positive effort on Manpower management and development perspectives about validating the newly devised

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Model professionally by engaging the key stakeholders as a part of the model itself.

a) *Utility Theory and Analysis*

Utility Analysis of decision making is the main contributor to much strategic work force planning objectives. We generally justify manpower research and execution towards more knowledge, skills, re-defined employee benefits, training, PMS and promotion policies through their returns. Such labor costs may jump up to 50% of total operating costs of the company (Milkovich and Boudreau 1988), though, we do not manage the human resources with the same importance as the plant, machinery, and marketing resources. The manpower planning functions are regarded as a cost centre or as overhead items with little systemic attention devoted to the financial achievements contribution of workforce management and sustainability of corporate return on the same, is still a matter of debate in a widely read professional journal (Gow, 1985). Competitive IT and Management companies in India manage their workforce based on strategy-linked needs and different variables. In almost all the cases, HR Managers are required to justify the viability and extent of contribution as the workforce planning section is probably the steward for the said resource in both IT and Manufacturing Industries. The primary question could be asked from the top management to justify the outcome of a very costly executive development programme or to reduce 50% of the Manpower development programme as an important tool to reduce the overhead and some portions of recurring expenditure in quantitative terms. We may link the same for establishing the cost-benefit or designing a PMS logic software, process, investment of production for an execution of the same or against assignment of preparation of a competitive incentive and reward programme of low and high budget.

Utility analysis usually provides a new way of perception about manpower planning decisions, and it is considered by leading management scientists as a useful tool for corporate and strategic decisions regarding feasibility of implanting Manpower planning decisions and initiatives (Kendrick, 1984, Kopelman, 1986). The decision about other programme areas like finance, production, quality management, testing is not only based; on cost parameters, on the contrary, it's linkage with direct revenue generation process. Management scientists in B. K. Dynamics study (1973, 1975) proposes a decision support framework that explicitly considers the costs and benefits of human resource decisions. It has effects on the modus-operandi of workforce planning and functions in a more relevant, systematic and rational manner. More importantly, utility theory supports the decision making process even when the information is unavailable or uncertain or come out with usual choice or statistical

analysis. Utility analysis could be difficult and detailed with interventions of sophisticated algebraic modules.

Apropos an idea on development of human capital through further investments, researchers have found the utility analysis very important and accordingly devised many calculations and method of deriving the utility of traditional HR functions such as productivity coefficients and human performance distribution for transcending them into monetary benefits in order to generate a quantitative output (Brogden 1949, Schmidt, Hunter, McKenzie & Muldrow, 1979, Cascio & Ramos, 1986, Raju, Burke & Normand, 1990, Raju, Cabrera & Lezotte, 1996). However, even after considerable attempts, the techniques found negatively affect decision perceptions. Latham and Whyte (1994) also found that Utility analysis is lowering the support system for intervention as and when influenced by managerial decision. Macan & Highhouse, 1994, Hazer & Highhouse, 1997, propose that utility information are relevant, though, managers may not accept the outcome of utility analysis unless being fully aware of the workflow and phase-wise distribution of functional aspects. Proper acceptance of the results of survey from low to moderate levels, though have a better effect on decision acceptance (Carson, Becker & Henderson, 1998); still, a low acceptance level is more prevalent. After that, Rauschenberger & Schmidt, (1987), and Cronshaw, (1997) proposed to involve managers in the utility analysis process to enhance their understanding on the process and acceptance on the results.

The first utility analysis model of Brogden-Cronbach-Gleser (B-C-G) focuses only on one "cohort" of labors using the Brogden-Cronbach-Gleser (B-C-G) utility model (Brogden, 1946a, 1946b, 1949; Brogden & Taylor, 1950; Cronbach & Gleser, 1965). The quantity of productivity of entire person-years incorporates by a selection process is equal to the size of the hired group multiplied by their average tenure. Most researches on utility analysis by psychologists usually compare various Standard Deviation measures. Schmidt, et al., (1979) have measured the results by surveying supervisors reply of the job, enabling the psychologists to analyze and find out the value through estimation for a person better than 95%, 50% and 15% of the population. Whereas, Schmidt & Hunter, (1983) has estimated differently 40% of average salary or 20% of average productivity, among job incumbents. Though both Cascio & Ramos, (1986). Boudreau have adopted comprehensive and difficult methods on behavioral anchors and found different calculation methods to produce different SDy values, though failed to offer higher accuracy or validity. Long-term research is going on to explore new perspectives on how such models affect actual managerial decisions (Boudreau, Dyer & Rynes, 1986) along with an integrated program for further up gradation of the cost-benefit and utility

analysis for improvisation of next generation decision management tools, using computers and statistical software. Workforce managers may thereafter analyze, and submit their strategic decisions using variables, cost-benefit and utility concepts; participate in more positive and constructive communication with supervisors, line managers and top management for future goal setting by enhancing the productivity, competitiveness and teamwork.

For using utility analysis, infrequently, as a managerial decision making aid, the study primarily identifies intractable factors on the evolution of Utility analysis. Secondly, managers must remain assured and convinced of using this tool to generate accurate outcomes. Hence, the issues related to reliability and validity needs further discussion. It is pertinent to examine information, either included or excluded, in various functions and methods of utility, like standard deviation, labor turnover ratio, human performance measures, etc. Lastly, considering the human performance as assets, researches and methodologies on decision-making are reviewed considering a relation to managerial judgment and acceptance on investment in capital development of HRM.

A study conducted on utility analysis with specific reference to selection procedures (e.g., Cascio, 1991, Cascio & Ramos, 1986, Cascio & Sibley, 1979, Cronshaw, 1986, Cronshaw and Alexander, 1985, Schmidt, Hunter, Mckenzie, & Muldrow, 1979), wherein the researchers have identified on identical cost/ benefit analysis to other workforce interventions, including appraisal feedback (Florin-Thuma & Boudreau, 1987, Landy, Farr, & Jacobs, 1982) recruitment (Boudreau & Rhynes, 1985) and turnover/attrition/layoff management (Boudreau & Berger, 1985, Cascio 1991). Such other studies with a large degree of precision to identify the financial return on investments designed to enhance employee productivity. However, few companies additionally use utility analysis in strategic decision making on the implementation of new HR Policies.

Utility theory is a fundamental aspect of decision making and cost-benefit analysis which is useful in determining the prospective areas of the same in organizational context. "a fundamental axiom is are formulated in a slightly different manner (Von Neumann and Morgenstern, 1947)." The theory is based on the likelihood of consequences of possible alternatives and decision makers' preference towards the same as well. It systematically considers all the relevant and available information for preference of the decision makers. Keeney, (1980) advocated for the utility theory and analysis as it helps the decision makers to evaluate alternatives through formulating and integrating judgment and preferences. Decision makers may, categorically exploit the knowledge, experience, judgmental skills for professional and individual decision

making. Studies on the effects of participation on acceptance of strategic decisions, performance management systems and organizational development efforts (Roth, Segars & Wright, 1998) also examine what the objectives of the organization are and how managers try to achieve strategic objectives (Wright & McMahan, 1992). In modern days, Kaplan and Norton's Balanced Scorecard (1992, 1996a, 1996b), also decomposes an organization's strategic intent into four main components, however, they specified only one of them in financial terms. Dyer, 1984; Schuler & Jackson, 1987a proposes to successfully pursue a particular strategy along with a specific set of manpower practices in line with strategy and overall HRM practices for incorporating a synergistic effect on firming the performance (Schuler & Jackson, 1987b; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Delery & Doty, 1996). It is found that the company's business strategy must determine and become responsible for building the required capabilities (Yeung & Berman, 1997).

The analysis has been done on the shortcomings while defining the main barriers in identification and assessment of the utility function, through it is really cumbersome to formulate the point of representation of Utility functions.

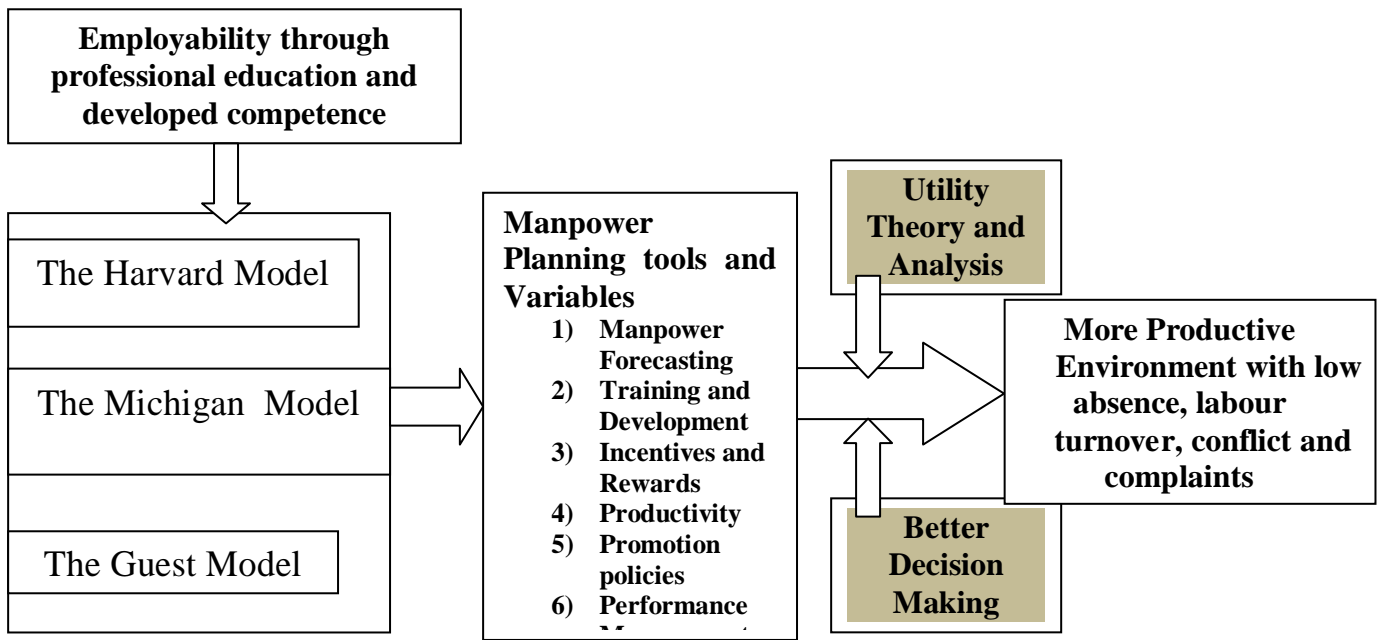


Figure 1.1: A Utility- HRM model-aligned productivity enhancement diagram

For evaluating the optimum benefit of utility based models, many studies used the generic, and available cost-benefit ratio in further investigations. The prime aspects in most of such analysis are the primary, secondary and tertiary assumptions, as the case may be. Additionally, to make the utility function based on aforesaid parameters, practical and meaningful, the utilization of the ratio based on costs to benefits shall also require more and substantial assumptions for the calculations. Fishburn (1965, 1970) and Keeney and Raiffa (1976) discussed an analytical representation using all costs and benefits and other measures using a utility function with specific arguments on costs and benefits incurred or supposed to be incurred against the contexts which are an assumption based, though not hypothetical in a real sense. The protocol of the analysis reflected on the measurement of quantitative utility, based on theoretical apprehensions, and a significant effort has been made to establish the same mathematically.

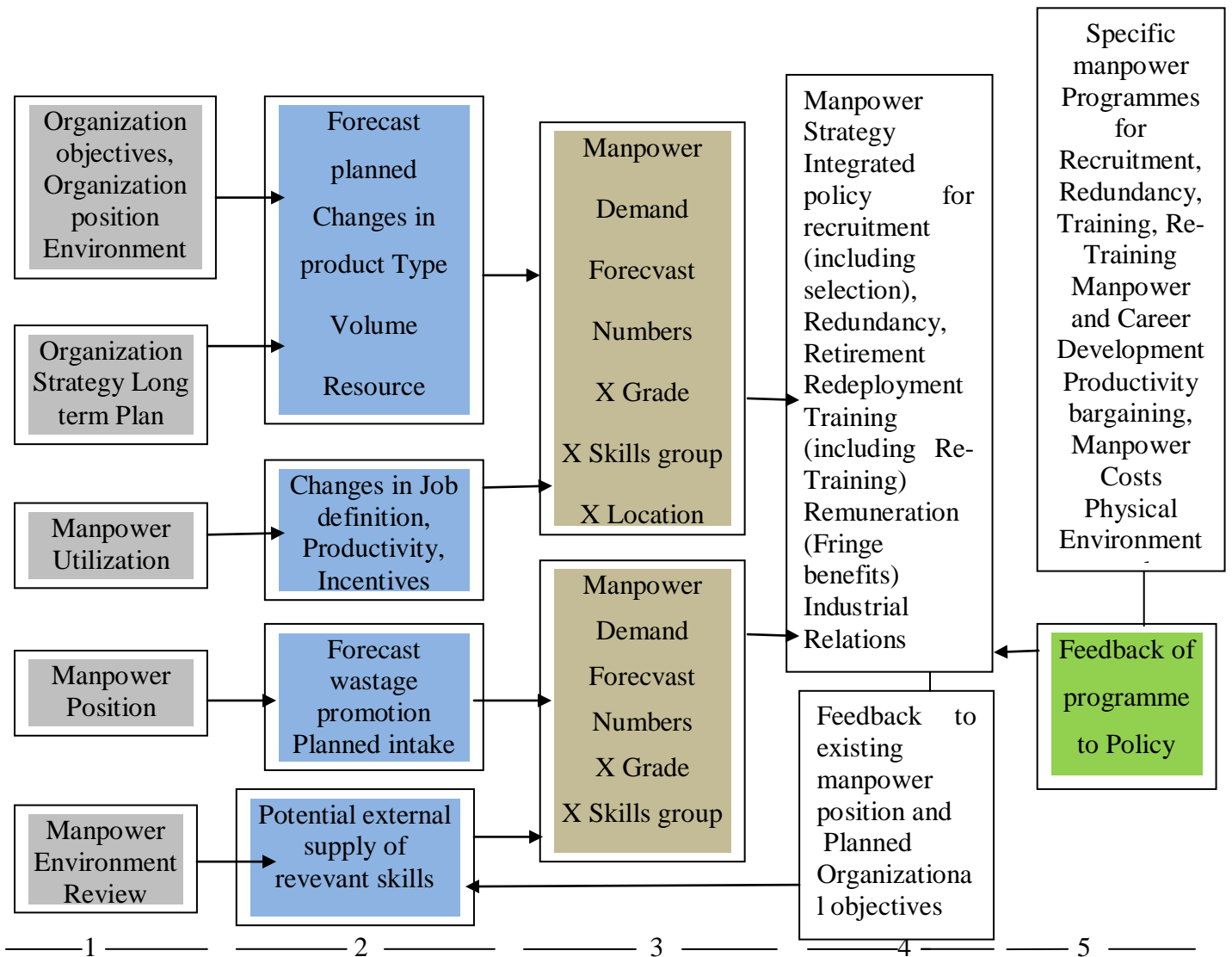


Figure 1.2: Components of Manpower and Personnel Planning

III. MANPOWER PLANNING MODELS

a) Harvard Model

THE HARVARD FRAMEWORK FOR HRM

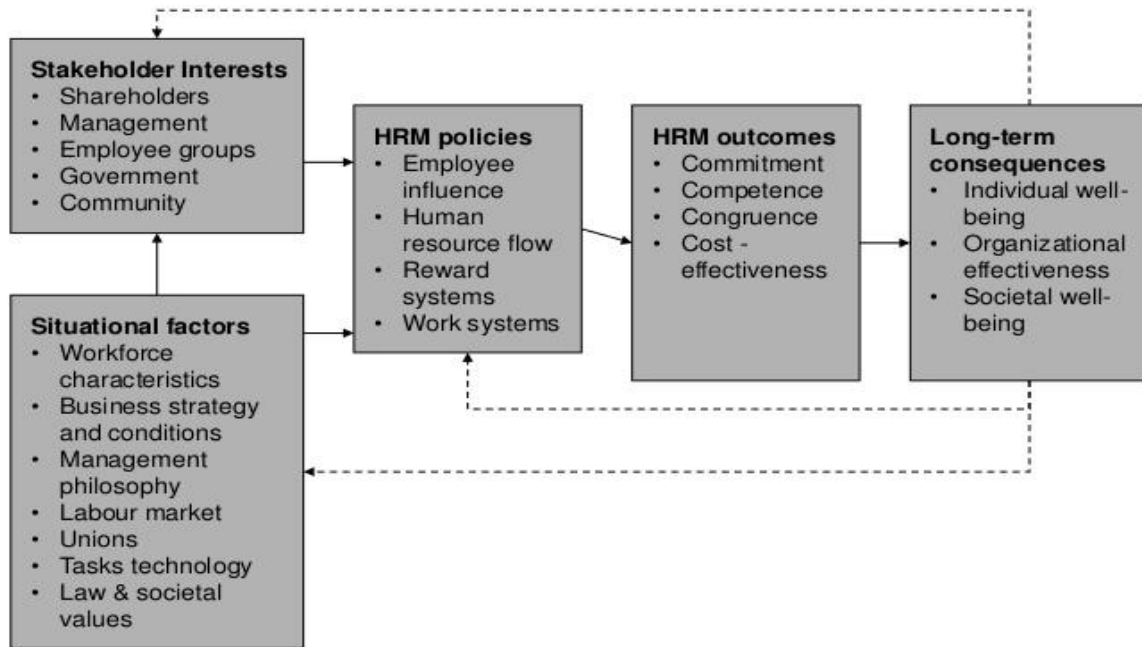


Figure 2.1: The Harvard Model

It was postulated by Beer et al. (1984) at the School of Management, Harvard University. While formulating the model, to reflect on comprehensive solutions, the authors of the said model also coined it the micro and macro level model of HRM territory. This model acknowledges the involvement of community at large along with one/multiple stakeholders which include but not limited to a different group of employees and Government. We also discussed that the recognition of the legitimacy of aforesaid the existence of various stakeholders perceived about the model in a new way, and the same evolved as a neo-pluralist model and the same was emphasized specifically on human aspects along with soft sides of workforce planning.

Grinold and Marshall (1977) in the research work titled "Manpower Planning Models" Harvard model asserts to compete for as much as it entails to include six crucial elements of Manpower planning like stakeholders, conditional parameters, manpower planning strategy options, HR results, permanent outcomes, and a review loop. The results go directly into the company and to the people who have a particular interest.

We have recorded above factors as the workforce strategy which shows staff-level influences;

resource flows, reward system, etc. A utility-based analysis of the model depicts that the results and layout are deeply rooted in the people relations as an HRM tradition. We recognize the anticipatory influence of employees with a channel of human relations, engagement, and motivation alongside the development of a corporate culture under internal bonding, trust, and teamwork. The takeaway of the critical process outcomes renders a visible impact on a long term to very long term consequences, improved productivity outcome, organizational output, and effectiveness which will, in turn, explore and influence shareholder interests and relevant interim factors to make it a cycle. In light of utility analysis, the quantitative outcomes from such processes are soft as the process confers high congruence, exceptional commitment, engagement, competencies, etc. Harvard model's philosophy stands on the belief of receiving competitive advantage through quality human resources by treating them as assets and not costs.

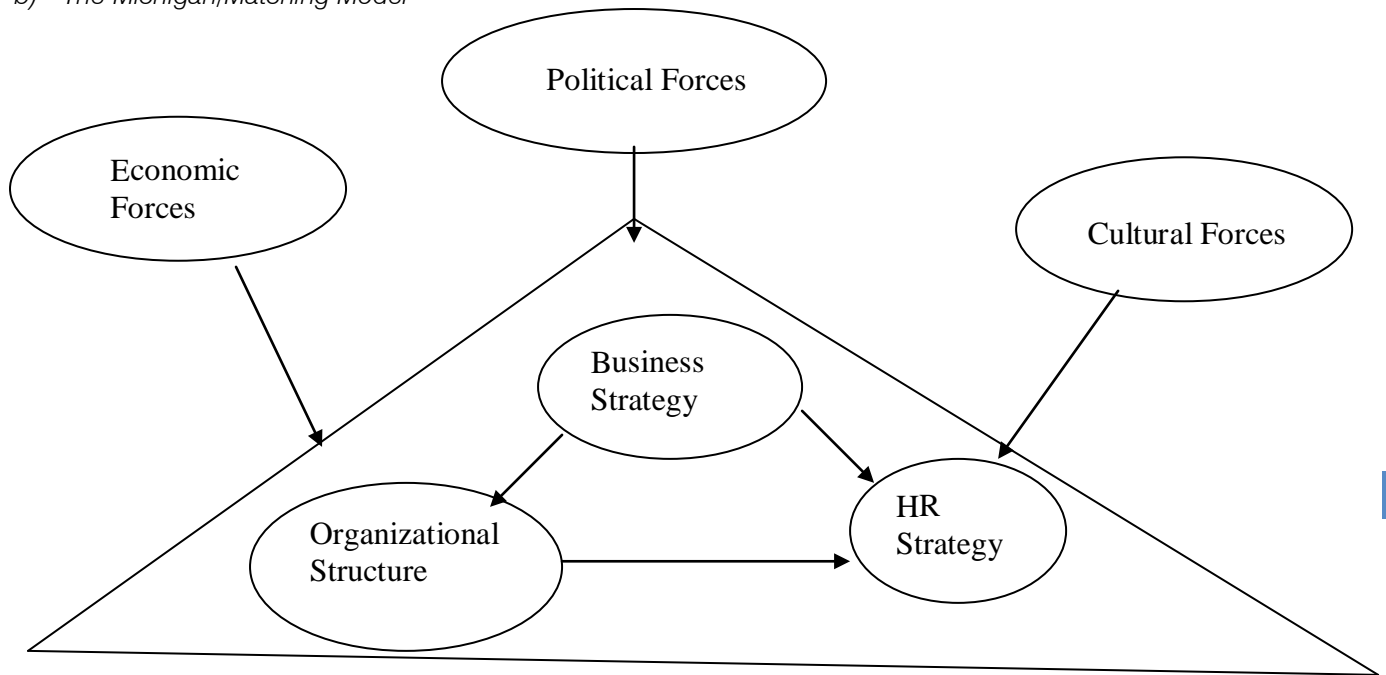
b) *The Michigan/Matching Model*

Figure 2.2: The Michigan Model: Devanna (1984)

The Michigan model was developed by Fombrun, Tichy, and Devanna (1984) during their comprehensive research on Human Resource Models at the Michigan Business School. They also named this model a matching model of HRM. This model has been propounded as 'hard' aspects of Manpower planning and HRM because it emphasizes on considering employees as a blueprint of the organization's business strategy. The Hard aspects of HRM focus on the usage of people as resources and as a factor on the competitive success of the organization. The Business and strategic HR areas should invariably be highly

systemic and analytical as the objectives are an integral part of the business strategy, and, hence, becomes crux of this model (Evans and Lorange, 1989). The Michigan model acknowledges the primary area of importance for upgrading, motivating and awarding people, and emphasizes mostly on managing the human assets and optimally utilize them to achieve desired goals. Although empirical evidence have not generated any strong linkage of practicing consistent and systematic with hard HRM, still the studies by Truss et al., (1997) at large organizations where the employees were associated and managed towards business goals.

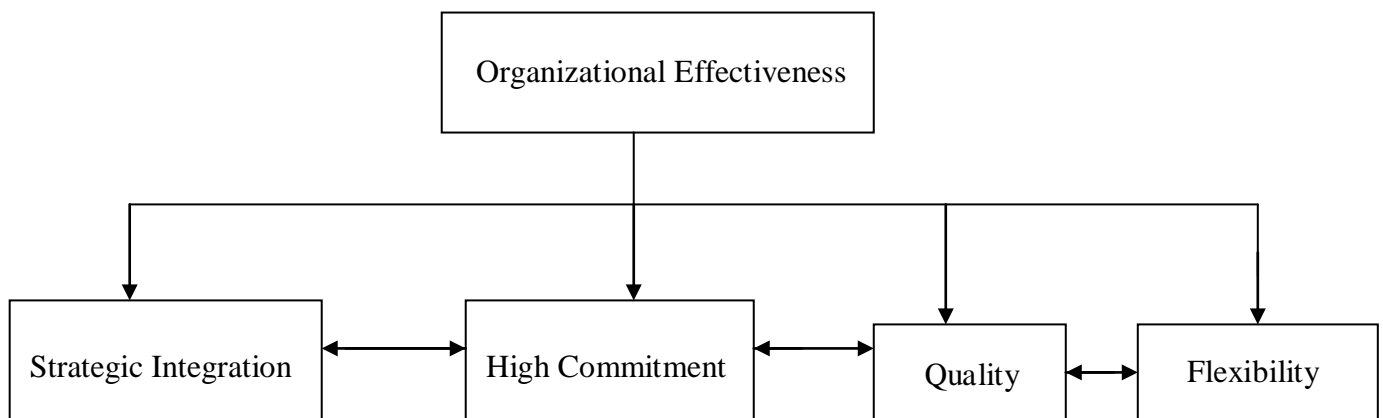
c) *The Guest Model*

Figure 2.3: The Guest Model

David Guest propounded in 1987 which is a fusion of soft and hard aspects of Manpower planning and a combination of the following four functions:

- Strategic Integration
- Flexibility

- High Commitment
- Quality

In the Strategic integration aspect, the model tells about the integration of Manpower and other crucial HR strategies with overall business strategy, both in short and long run, to achieve desired goals and thus focuses on harder aspects of the HRM planning. This model also fosters Manpower planning as an effective part of the functional plans and shall have the potential to ensure the implementation of other related strategies in organizational context. Whereas, flexibility is purely concerned with the adaptability of the Policies, Management, employees and the entire organization to the changing business and works environment with inclusions of new cultures, challenges, and innovation. Flexibility can bear hard and soft aspects of HRM and shall be in numeric, functional, etc. The utility of labor requirements are the harder aspect of the Manpower planning where the inclusion of labor in a system is fully need-based and may often relate to exploitation. Flexibility, at times, concerned to achieve business objectives, though by treating employees or labors, as fairly as possible. High commitment denoted the cohesion of employee's individual or collective outcomes with the objectives of the organization as a whole where a positive behavior and attitude helps the employees to explore their potential to the fullest and stretch them wholeheartedly to achieve the organization's commitments. Lastly, this model believes in overall quality enhancement by preparing and delivering quality goods and services resulting in quality treatment to its manpower assets.

The Harvard model creates a basis for a critical analysis of comparative manpower planning and other HR aspects as it categorically classifies the inputs and outputs at the organizational and societal level. It also broadly recognizes the interest of stakeholders and the trade-offs between management and the labors/employees and widens the scope of influencers in strategic choices of management, the motivation of employees and situational issues of other stakeholders. Whereas, the Michigan model explicitly narrated the coherence of strategic guidelines internal to the environment and expresses it's further coherence to the business strategy which is purely external to the environment. The Guest model, however, clearly focuses and chart out the inter-linkage, and maps of inputs and outputs of various Manpower and HRM functions with a thorough association with strategy, practice, impact, overview and outcome. It shows how the coherence of relevant HRM practices has higher impacts if applied properly and how it results in better individual performance in a given environment. The factors include commitment, quality, flexibility, productivity, innovation, conflict, turnover, etc. However, the guest model has not taken different inputs for

situational constraints and stakeholders inclusion which may significantly change the outcome of financial, behavioural and performance areas, as the case may be. It should also take the dynamism of the environment and alternate functions into consideration for better justification. The Michigan model failed in its prescriptive nature, more or less, and focus on it's driving forces along with four definite practices like selection, performance, appraisal, and reward. Unlike the Harvard model, it is failed to understand the situational factors of different stakeholder's interest and thus the basis of strategic choices by various levels of decision alternatives from Management. It also pays less attention towards cost-benefit viability of the prescribed processes to be more realistic. The main weakness of the Harvard model was the absence of the basis for practical and theoretical measurement of coherence and relationships between situational inputs, effects, and outcomes at situational and individual levels, performance, and it's indicators. In this context, we propose a new model in Indian context for Manpower planning and development where we take from individual and societal context by incorporating two-way utility analysis process, internal and external to the environment.

d) A New Model on Manpower Planning and Development

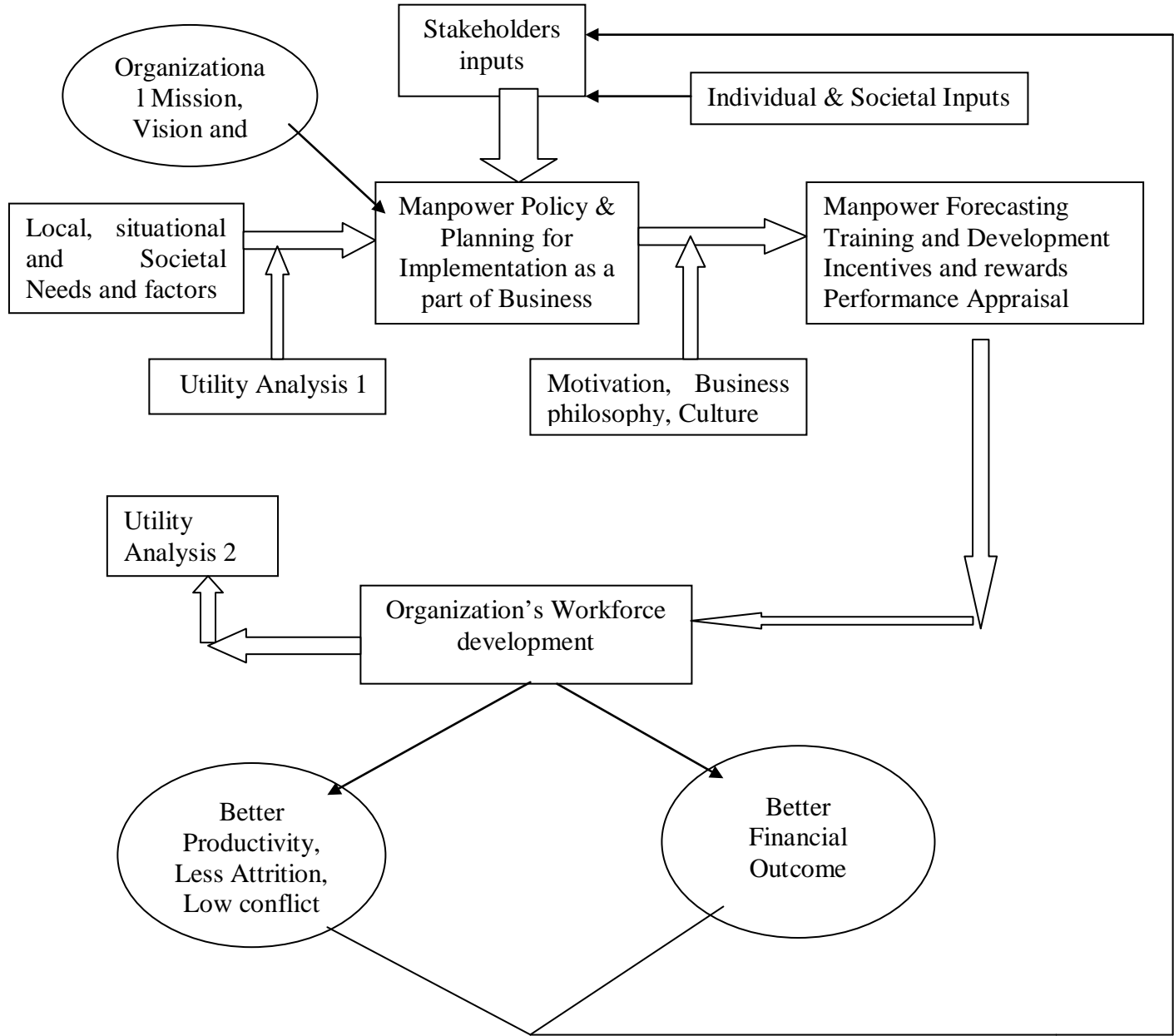


Figure 3.1: Newly Proposed Model of Manpower Planning and Development

IV. CONCLUSION

We consider systematic and cost-effective manpower and personnel planning as a crucial aspect in an organizational context and it is a significant problem in any large organization because of its poor understanding of real outcomes along with the lack of involvement of decision makers in the whole process. We can take lower acceptability and awareness on analytical perspectives of utility in the presence of various manpower planning models in a fast changing and dynamic environment as the other reasons. The consequences of the alternative policies selected are

also significant. Most traditional manpower and personnel planning models have not carefully focused on those goals and outcomes are conceptual models at the best. The utilization of utility theory and analysis for structuring objectives and quantifying an objective function has much to offer for any need-based, situation-driven, non-prescriptive outcomes. However, for the potential advantages to be achieved, the research must be carefully and thoroughly conducted. The cost-benefit outcomes is sound and practical. The operational procedures of the analysis are available for delineating viability of a model, or it's inputted through systemic and normative concepts. However, it is getting

increasingly difficult to utilize the resources, and its application requires substantial creativity to generate the desired outcome which is due to the complexity of the stakeholder's problem statements, subject to shortcomings of the approach. Irrespective of the changing environment in the organizational context, if the variables remain predictive and responsive the input category, the output would be more accepted by the beneficiaries and thus will generate more involvement in the decision making and utility analysis process in India.

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FELLOWS

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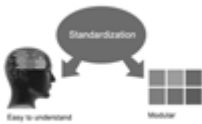
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19. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

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21. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

22. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

23. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium through which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.



- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.



Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.



Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.



Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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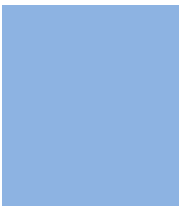


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BY GLOBAL JOURNALS

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	C-D	E-F
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring





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ISSN 9755853



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